

The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

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Standards for Judging History Instruction

BY OSCAR H. WILLIAMS, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

"The efficiency of any profession depends in large measure upon the degree to which it becomes scientific. The profession of teaching will improve (1) as its members direct their daily work by the scientific spirit and methods, that is, by honest, open-minded consideration of facts, by freedom from superstitions, fancies, or unverified guesses, and (2) in proportion as the leaders in education direct their choices of methods by the results of scientific investigation rather than by general opinion."

Thus writes Thorndike in a memorable chapter on the "Scientific Study of Teaching."¹ Two elements in the situation have hitherto precluded the scientific study of history teaching. First, both historian and history teacher have been unduly absorbed in the fact or content side of history work. With both, the chief concern has been an extension or accumulation of historical information, an elucidation of fact and theory of historical movement. The consideration of effective presentation of history in schools has at best received only formal or perfunctory attention from all concerned. The study of history teaching in the scientific spirit, that is, by experimentation and accurate analysis and testing of results, has scarcely been attempted by students either of history or of education. Secondly, the historian and history teacher have directed speculative thought and practical demonstration to the scientific method as applied to the historical narrative, but have ignored the scientific method as applied to historical instruction. Scholars such as Bernheim, Langlois and Seignobos, Vincent, Fling, and many others have elaborated, illustrated, and applied the principles of historical science. No such writers have attempted to formulate in a scientific way the principles of historical teaching.

It is far from the purpose of the present writer to disparage the importance to the teacher of history of either full and accurate knowledge of history, or of an understanding of the process by which the fund of knowledge has been accumulated; knowledge of history and understanding of historical method are both fundamental in effective teaching of the subject. We may go further and say that progress in the scientific study of history teaching will be conditioned both by full and definite knowledge of history and an adequate comprehension of the principles of historical method. To quote Professor Fling in this

connection, "To teach history successfully one must know how to study history scientifically."²

But scientific method applied to historical writing and scientific method applied to historical instruction are widely different matters. The teacher of history who wishes to rise to the higher planes of efficiency needs not only to understand what the difference is, but also to have a practical working experience in both processes. The former of these applications of scientific method to history has received marked attention from students and writers, and has even been incorporated into college courses for the training of secondary teachers. But the latter use of scientific method in history has hardly claimed the serious attention of teachers themselves. Strangely enough, even courses for training history teachers scarcely recognize its transcendent importance. Yet the marked advance in recent years of the scientific study of education, particularly in the accurate analysis and measurement of the results of teaching, renders imperative upon history teachers careful study of the methods and results of their branch of the teaching craft.

The first step in the scientific analysis of teaching is the fixing of standards. One must first determine what are the desired results of his work before he can go far in testing or measuring these results. Clearly we must agree as to the results we wish to attain in history teaching before we can approximate a means of testing or a scale for measuring the results. This applies equally to the selection of subject material, and its organization and logical arrangement in a course of study, as to the methods of adapting the materials to the interests and capacities of children.

In a recent book, Professor F. A. McMurry has indicated certain standards for judging instruction in the elementary schools.³ These standards he discovers from a consideration of the purposes of teaching. The immediate purpose of teaching, he thinks, is to impart knowledge and power and form the habits that determine a well-ordered life. "That is," he says, "we must look directly to the life about us to find what subject-matter the school should offer, and how this should be treated." The course of study will be good to the degree in which it contains problems that are socially vital and yet within the com-

¹ "The Principles of Teaching," by E. L. Thorndike, Chapter XVI.

² "Outline of Historical Method," by F. M. Fling, p. 15.

³ "Elementary School Standards" (School Efficiency Series), by F. A. McMurry, pp. 3, 4, Ch. II.

prehension and appreciation of pupils; and the method of presenting the course will be good in proportion as it exemplifies the methods of solving problems found most effective by the world's most intelligent workers.

From a possible list of elements in daily living that are socially important, the author selects four which are universally desirable. These are (1) motive on the part of pupils, (2) consideration of values by pupils, (3) attention to organization by pupils, and (4) initiative on the part of pupils. These four factors in everyday life, because of their universality, "are particularly worthy as aims of instruction." They may be accepted as standards for judging the quality of instruction. That teaching is good, in the opinion of the author, which makes provision for these essential elements in daily living.

It would not perhaps be either difficult or highly instructive to show that these standards may be applied to history instruction in secondary schools. Doubtless, in the high school, as in elementary schools, some attention should be devoted to motivation in history work. Children and youth may profitably be encouraged to set up immediate and ultimate purposes in their daily study and reading of history. Added zest and interest in the subject may be aroused, for example, if suggestion is offered to a class in American history that it look into the part played by its own families in westward migration, or investigate the history of its respective churches of the locality, or discover the historic reasons for the prevailing division of opinion as to the desirability of extending Federal as against State authority. In each case, it is observed, the point for investigation serves to illustrate the general topic, and at the same time connects itself with some immediate interest relating to the lives of the children. A general purpose might be proposed, viz., to discover how many of the wars of a period might, in the opinion of the class, have been averted by arbitration, thus illustrating the efficacy or inefficacy of this mode of settling international difficulties.

No doubt some thought should be given to the training of boys and girls in estimating relative values in history work. Occasion for the exercise of the power of appraisal of values arises in almost every lesson; for example, in judging the relative importance of names, of dates, and of leaders. Some dates are to be learned and remembered for all time; others only for the lesson. Pupils should evaluate and pass judgment in the matter for themselves. Likewise, they should acquire the habit of judging relative values in analyzing the causes or forces in a movement, the terms of a treaty, or the policies of a party.

In history teaching in high schools, as in elementary schools, there are both necessity and occasion for organization of ideas by the pupils. In no subject are individual facts more overwhelming in number and variety. The only hope of the student and teacher is the careful grouping and systematizing of facts,—"tying them into bundles"—and this gives the needed training in organization. Logical and con-

structive outlining, arranging matter for a class report, marshaling evidence in support of a thesis, constitute training of the highest value.

Again, in history work, numerous occasions arise for fostering initiative on the part of pupils. They may be encouraged to express independent judgments, offer original points of view, and indicate their individual preference of leaders and personalities. They may and should place their own estimates upon the importance of historic movements. They may be directed and stimulated to do certain forms of constructive work in which individual initiative has full play. Of such work, mention may be made of those exercises in which the pupil's knowledge is applied in concrete forms, *e.g.*, the writing of historical letters, keeping historical diaries, composing historical dramas, and planning pageants, holding conventions and making treaties, impersonating historical characters, and participating in informal discussions, debates, and orations.

Thus we may, I believe, accept the general teaching standards as having application to history instruction. The point may well be raised that these standards for judging instruction have particular reference to the work of the elementary schools. They apply, moreover, equally with history to most or all other school subjects. The problem still remains to show the distinctive values claimed for history instruction in high schools, and to indicate acceptable standards for testing the quality of such instruction.

What are the desirable purposes of history teaching in high schools? What definite and distinctive types of mental training and habit formation does it afford? In answering this question, we need to take into account both the nature of history and the character of the social order in which the pupils are to live. For these is quite common agreement among those who have thought upon the matter that it is the unique task of history and its kindred subjects to train boys and girls for socially efficient living.

If we consider, then, the scientific nature and method of history, its theme of social evolution, and view also the complex and changing social order, with its ever-recurring problems of social adjustment, we may discover four kinds of worthy aims which may be claimed for history teaching in high schools. These are, (1) concrete and objective thinking, (2) application of historic truth to social situations, (3) analysis and interpretation of historical phenomena, and (4) use of the historical judgment. These purposes may be accepted as desirable standards for judging the quality of the teaching of history in the secondary school. That is to say, the history instruction which makes careful provision for these important objects may be rated as good in quality, and that which neglects any or all should be set down as poor teaching.

Let us first consider the standard of concrete and objective teaching of history.

In a recent essay,⁴ President Eliot has pointed out

⁴ "The Tendency to the Concrete and Practical in Modern Education," by C. W. Eliot, pp. 7, 8.

in a convincing way the value of the concrete and practical in modern education. He raises the question why the inductive philosophy has proved "to have such a transforming power on the habits, manners, customs, government, religion, and whole life of any people that accepts it and puts it into practice." He then answers the question in substance as follows: The inductive method proceeds from the observation of the concrete and practical; it seeks the fact, it thinks little of the abstract or speculative; it does not rely on any kind of revelation. It studies the fact, the concrete object. It goes for the truth, the facts. Having observed the facts, it compares fact with fact, and fact group with fact group; and from the comparison it draws limited inference. Finally, it makes a careful record of all the observations, groupings, and inferences. Out of that inductive process have come, we may say without exaggeration, all the new ways of doing things, all modern industries, all the new freedoms, collective potencies, and social equalizations.

We have here suggested the supreme importance of inductive thinking in the teaching process. Not that any subject may be taught exclusively, or even chiefly, by the inductive method. History, more than all other subjects in the school curriculum, deals with generalized data. Investigation shows that almost every assertion of the historical writer, whether of text-book, monograph or monumental work, is a more or less generalized formula. Nearly every thought or statement of the teacher or student in interpreting the generalized formula will be itself that of a general or concept truth. What, then, is the function of the particular and concrete in history teaching? Simply this: Every generalized formula or concept statement must be made intelligible to the immature mind of the child by means of appropriate detail. Facts, figures, illustrations, concrete instances, suggestive examples, should illuminate and render full of significance the general forms of statement in which the historical narrative of necessity abounds.

Our first standard, then, is that of concreteness. By this token that teaching of history is sound and good which provides for illustrative detail at every stage. This is something more than manipulation of material, and involves the cultivation of the habit on the part of pupils of thinking inductively, of passing from the particular to the general and from the general back to the particular. More valuable training for the duties of civic and social life cannot be conceived.

How is the teacher of history to use concrete illustration with potent effect? A few pointed instances may make the matter clear. Take the case of the indentured servant. What explanation of his social status both at home and in the colonies could surpass for clearness this sentence from the diary of a high grade redemptioner, dated January 26, 1774? "This day I, being reduced to the last shilling I had, was obliged to go to Virginia for four years as schoolmaster for Bedd, Board, and Washing, and five

pounds during the whole time." The spirit and method of the owner of a fugitive slave is told with reality in the following notice taken from the *Carolina "Sentinel"* (Newbern, N. C.) for August 18, 1818: "ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS REWARD. The subscriber, having legally outlawed his man Harry, offers the above reward for his head, or the same if delivered alive to me. Harry is a stout, well-made fellow, about five feet six inches high, small eyes, and an impudent look; he took with him when he absconded two coats, one grey and the other blue, and a homespun suit of winter clothes, together with some articles of clothing not recollected. The above-mentioned negro is legally outlawed. Fair-field, near Washington, N. C. John Y. Bonner." Again, take the case of the early dependence of the South upon the farmers of the Northwest for many of its food supplies. James and Sanford state the matter thus⁵: "The South was dependent upon the Northwest for large amounts of its food supplies." The following clipping from a *Natchez* (La.) newspaper dated October 1826, supplies the needed detail: "Apples and Irish potatoes are good things. We have had good things in Natchez for the last week. Codfish and potatoes, with drawn potatoes and eggs; and apples raw, and apple-dumplings, and apple-pies, and baked apples; and roast potatoes, and potatoes boiled, and hash with potatoes in it,—besides fresh flour, and sundry other articles,—for which we are annually indebted to the father of waters (the Mississippi) and one of his older boys (the Ohio River); all these things have presented themselves to our delighted palates within the last few days."

The pages of standard historians, of official reports, of newspapers, of diaries, letters, and journals abound in such concrete and highly illustrative material. All that is needed is that the enthusiastic teacher take the trouble to find it out.

Keatinge has an illuminating chapter on concrete illustration in history teaching.⁶ "The pupil must reason about matters which are concrete to him in every sense of the word," he says. Then he proceeds to give a case in point. A text-book formula runs, "The Statute of Mortmain checked the giving of lands to corporations which were unable to perform feudal service." How may this rather bald statement be made intelligible to boys and girls? "To introduce the personal element a little fiction is useful," Keatinge goes on interestingly. "We introduce two barons, each living on his own estate. Let them be called baron A and baron B. Let the estates be drawn upon the blackboard, and let each baron be domiciled in his own stronghold.

"On what tenure did they hold their estates? What duties or payments to the overlord did the feudal system bring with it?

"We revise some of the feudal incidents that suit our purpose: (1) wardship; (2) fine on the marriage of heiresses; (3) intestacy; (4) escheat for

⁵ Page 342.

⁶ "Studies in the Teaching of History," by M. W. Keatinge, Ch. VI.

treason; and make it clear that it was from these and similar sources that the king's purse was filled, and that in this respect some barons must have been worth more to him than to others.

"We must now proceed to give a description of our two friends.

"Baron A is some thirty years old; he married young, and his two sons are of age; his two daughters have been married for some years; he is business-like, and has made all arrangements for the disposition of his property; he is extremely loyal. What are the king's chances of getting from this baron any of the fines mentioned above? Extremely small.

"Now consider baron B: he is forty-eight years old, a considerable age for this period, and is in poor health; he married late, and his eldest son is only fifteen years of age and of feeble constitution; he is unbusiness-like, and has probably not made the necessary legal arrangements about his property; he has three unmarried daughters who may become heiresses; he is suspected of treasonable designs.

"What are the king's chances of getting fines from him? Very considerable. Such a baron must have been a godsend to an extravagant monarch. Which of these barons is of greater value to his lord in this respect? Obviously baron B.

"Baron B, as narrated, is in poor health. He was always of a religious disposition, and as he grows feebler he sees a good deal of the neighboring abbot. Finally, regardless of the interest of his children, he makes over the whole of his property to the monastery on his estate. What will the king get from the monastery on the counts mentioned above? Nothing whatever. It must be made clear to the class that there will be no orphan sons, no heiresses, no intestacy, for a corporation cannot die; no escheat for treason, for monks do not rebel.

"If, then, many barons imitate B, what is the result to the king? Poverty; no pocket-money. How can he prevent this? Evidently by forbidding the alienation of land to corporations of this kind.

"The statement of the Statute of Mortmain can now follow. Its abstract nature has vanished."

The illustration suggests another resource of the teacher in concrete demonstration. This is the use of objective methods for massing detail. The employment of blackboard, of diagram, picture, map, model, relic, what not, belongs to the category of inductive teaching.

A second aim of historical instruction having social significance and value is the utilization of historical knowledge, or its application to social situations. A crying need in everyday life is the ability to utilize in practical situations what one has learned in the school. A distressing weakness in modern school practice is the lack of opportunity to use what one has learned. Children are worked overtime in accumulating information which there is little or no chance to apply. In history this fault of teaching is greatly accentuated. Exercises for putting to the test one's knowledge of history seem scant enough. In arithmetic or algebra, the mastery of the process is accompanied

by countless examples or practical exercises for testing out the thoroughness of knowledge. So in language study, in manual work, in grammar, composition, the natural sciences. Only in history do we have an endless learning of new matter with rarely an occasion to use or apply what has been learned.

Yet if one looks carefully into the matter a surprisingly large number of ways of applying historical knowledge offer themselves. Countless instances of similarity between conditions in past ages and those of modern times are easily discoverable. Herein is available one great resource of the history teacher in training pupils to make application of historical truth. Analogous conditions may be discovered, comparisons established, and differences noted. A few illustrations may help us here. When in 264 B. C. the Roman Republic, at the opening of the first Punic War, sent its legions into Sicily and embarked upon a career of external expansion, a situation arose, strikingly similar to that which faced the American Republic, when in 1898 its victorious fleet seized the Philippine Islands. Much was made by anti-imperialists of the similarity at the time. The high school student of Roman history should see the similarity of conditions and point out the elements of difference. In this fashion, the pupils make vital and effective use of their knowledge of affairs in the Roman Republic in the third century B. C. Again, the social and economic crisis in Italy in 183 B. C. was not unlike that in this country in 1912. Once more, the Roman system of land administration—its title in the State, its scheme of survey, its distribution to the settlers—closely resembles that introduced into the new American Republic shortly after independence was established.

In American history and civics, applications of historical knowledge may often be made to State and local conditions. Reference has already been made to westward migration between 1815 and 1840. Understanding of the general movement may be tested by applying it to the settlement of the State of Indiana. On the background of the larger movement the pupils may see how the current poured into the State during these years, first from the upland regions of the South, then near the end of the period from the middle and eastern sections of the country. All the elements are here, the inducements to settlers, the modes of acquiring land, of laying out towns in the wilderness, of opening roads and other means of communication. One may even narrow the study to the locality, for scarcely a community was not affected in some degree by this movement. In similar fashion, the study of the larger aspects in the nation of any of the following questions may be applied to the State; State aid of turnpikes, canals and railroads; State banks and banking; slavery extension; demand for cheap money; growth of cities and decay of rural life; and so on.

Another type of application of historical knowledge is that made to historical situations, real or imagined. Let us select a few examples of application to imaginary situations. A useful exercise is the

writing of letters and diaries or journals. A few days ago the writer asked a senior class in high school to use what they had talked over about the transforming results upon the nation of the "Second War of Independence," by writing one of the following exercises under date of February 1, 1815: a letter from Henry Clay, a page from the diary of John Quincy Adams, a supposed speech of Calhoun in the House, or an editorial for Niles' "Weekly Register." The value of the exercise may be judged from the following samples:

A NEW AMERICA.

(An imaginary review [editorial] from "Niles' Register" under date of February 1, 1815.)

The direct effects of the late war, viewed economically, politically, and socially, are of such nature as will be the foundation of a wonderful era of prosperity in this country.

Although it seems but a short time since the commissioners of both nations met at Ghent for purposes of peace, the majority of Americans, since that memorable day of December 24, 1814, when the treaty was signed, have had a strong feeling of national consciousness, and have seen with a clear vision that the nation has a future such as no European power can disturb.

England's refusal to stop seizing our sailors on board American vessels and forcing them into her service paved the way for a war, that war in which this country in the end convinced Great Britain that our rights must be respected the same as any other nation's rights.

Our military operations, although far from successful on land, have shown foreign nations that any attempt to establish themselves on the territory of the United States is likely to meet with effective resistance.

It is true that the war has been a costly one for us. It has cost us thirty thousand lives and a hundred million dollars, but with the strength and confidence of a new government at our command, and under the unfaltering patriotism of American citizens, we have made the way clear for successful commercial and industrial enterprises.

We have entered into terms of peace with England. May these terms never again be broken, and may the "Era of Prosperity and Good Feeling" continue unto future generations.

A PAGE FROM THE DIARY OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

(February 1, 1815.)

There are three things which stand uppermost in my mind that have been accomplished in regard to foreign affairs since the treaty of 1783. These things are: (1) the purchase of Louisiana, (2) the interposition of the Czar in behalf of our commerce in 1809, and (3) the treaty with Great Britain which was consummated at Ghent about a month ago. Though doubtless many of my countrymen will be disappointed in its provisions, yet I believe this is one of the greatest treaties this country may ever hope to contract. It severs, I firmly believe, all our bonds of custom with England. The treaty of 1783 did not entirely cancel our most intimate relations with the mother country. We yet were dependent upon her, politically, commercially, industrially; we were proud of our lineage in her. England, I believe, has never lost her ambition to control us in our commercial and industrial life. She has regarded us only as a dependent—never as a world power. Constant violation of our rights on her part has shown us that. This semi-independence would seriously retard American progress in time. This war is but a com-

pletion of the Revolution. And it is God we must thank for its fortunate outcome, for I fear America should not have fared so well had not her opponent's forces been divided. I anticipate this second independence—this real independence—will open a vast field for expansion in many lines in America.

The above lines were penned by a high school girl. Whether she has correctly interpreted the spirit of the classic diarist of the second era of American independence I leave to my hearers to judge. Let us turn to a letter written by a boy in the same class.

A LETTER FROM HENRY CLAY TO JOHN C. CALHOUN.

Ghent, The Netherlands, February 1, 1815.

John C. Calhoun, M.C.,

Washington, D. C., U. S. A.

Dear Sir: By the time this epistle reaches you the treaty, which our commission, after much delay, succeeded in wresting from the British commissioners, will perhaps have been ratified or rejected by the Senate. I trust the former will be the case.

Although the treaty does not provide for the abolition of those outrages by which we were driven to war, yet the respect for our nation, which the memory of our victorious commands will enhance, will doubtless prevent their repetition. The Orders in Council have been repealed and I am confident that with Napoleon's downfall, which must come shortly, interference with our trade and impressment of our seamen will cease.

As desirable as were war and honor three years ago, much more to be desired to-day is peace, if it can be obtained without dishonor. Recent reports from the various States, telling of the distress due to our blockaded ports and interrupted commerce, have so alarmed the commission that even I, whom Randolph called a "war hawk," am willing to accept a treaty which guarantees peace alone. I sincerely hope that you have not or will not use your influence to defeat its ratification or to embarrass its drafters.

Mr. Adams has returned to Russia to resume his post. The remainder of the commission, Messrs. Bayard, Gallatin, Russell, and myself, are awaiting word of the Senate's action before returning home.

Your fellow-countryman,

H. CLAY.

So much for applications of history in imaginary situations. Applications to real historical conditions may be made by means of the written thesis. A fairly definite and not too difficult or complex problem is stated. The student sets to work in a spirit of inquiry. If in an advanced class, he should find most of his materials, place an estimate upon their value, and arrange the facts in logical sequence in support of his thesis. Questions such as the following are appropriate: Were William of Normandy's claims to the throne of England valid? Was the Norman Conquest a good thing or a bad thing for England? Had Frederick I or the Italian communes the better right in their struggles? What connection was there between the rise of universities and the spread of heresy in the twelfth and the thirteenth centuries? Was Cromwell an ambitious usurper or a sincere patriot? Was Jackson justified in his distrust of the Bank?

Such questions require the marshaling of evidence, the balancing of opinion, and a final decision. In all these processes there is both opportunity and necessity of putting to the test the knowledge gained in daily class work.

Still another mode of applying what one has learned in history is the use of debate or discussion. Both should be employed in history, however, with some care and discrimination, for not all historical questions are debatable. Questions which the race has settled for all time should not be introduced in debate. Such are the rightfulness of slavery, the inequality of women, the efficacy of religious persecution. Questions which the nation has permanently decided, or which are no longer pertinent, may not be profitably discussed. Such, for example, are the right of nullification or of secession, the right of territorial acquisition, the right to build railroads and canals at Federal expense. But aside from these limitations on historical debate, there still remains a host of living issues, of controversial matters, which are legitimate material for debate or discussion. The relative validity of claims by pope and council, the merits in the contest between Philip IV and Boniface, the justification of the colonial revolt from England, the justice of the Mexican War, the desirability of maintaining the Monroe Doctrine, are a few of the many such questions for discussion or debate. This form of application is of special usefulness in civics or economics.

Yet another way of applying historical truth is found in the study of current history. The survival in our day of historical issues, institutions and movements are surprisingly numerous. The perennial Monroe Doctrine finds new application and interpretation in almost every international complication relating to the Americas. The question of papal authority in Catholic countries is by no means dead. Disputes growing out of the union of church and state crop out in many civilized countries at the present day. Clashes of colonial rivalry, of commercial interests, of race antagonisms, have come down to us from the days of Rome and Carthage. In the study of history in the making, we have excellent means of applying what has been learned in history classes, and at the same time of illuminating the understanding of contemporary life through history.

Our second important criterion for judging historical instruction is, then, the utilization of historical knowledge. By this token, the history instruction which makes provision for some daily application of what has happened is sound and good. On the other hand, the teaching which is concerned solely with acquisition of knowledge is by the same token weak and poor.

A third element in historical teaching is interpretative power. One of the chief aims in teaching history is training in the analysis of social phenomena. This is sometimes called "historical thinking." What is involved in historical thinking? The habit or power of thinking of social phenomena dynamically, i. e., as evolving from early and simple stages

to more complex; of viewing them in historical perspective; that is, in their real relation to the times in which they fall or to the historical movement to which they belong; of analyzing social situations into their simpler elements, revealing their causal forces and resulting influences.

The importance of such training for daily living needs no demonstration. The simple duties of everyday life, the elementary activities of citizenship, require accurate perception of causal forces in human relationships, some sense of historical perspective, and some knowledge of the stages by which the present has come to be what it is.

Interpretative power in historical teaching is a third criterion. The teaching which trains in this power by daily instruction is good. That which ignores or neglects it, and seeks only accumulation of fact, is poor.

A fourth element in history instruction is historical judgment, i. e., judgment based wholly upon tested sources of information.

The value in daily living of this kind of judgment is beyond estimation. Nothing is more common among children and uncultivated persons than the proneness to accept at face value the statements of others, without checking up misinformation, without testing for possible error or intentional falsification. If the statement is one printed in a book, the tendency is greatly accentuated. Reverence for the printed page is well nigh instinctive in man.

But what is the remedy for all this? The remedy, or better the prophylactic, is some elementary training in historical criticism. Pupils in grammar grades and high schools should be given some exercise in testing the sources of information. They should discover from concrete examples how difficult a matter it is for anyone to tell the absolute truth. They should become familiar with various kinds of error, with the forms of historical bias. They should, through the study of original accounts, observe the influence upon men's minds of different forms of prejudice—racial, sectional, political, religious, class, what not. They should learn through history study to apply some of the simpler criteria for accuracy and sincerity. In these ways, they may be fortified against error and falsehood.

But how to proceed? One may begin with cases of conflicting testimony in different accounts. Perhaps the most common as well as the simplest is the conflicting report of what has occurred which appears daily in the newspapers. Rival newspapers, or competing news agencies, frequently carry highly contradictory accounts of happenings or opposing interpretations of public policies. Under proper direction, even children may readily discover the errors and point out the reasons for overstatement in one case or suppression of details in another. A familiar case at present is found in the conflicting official reports from the war zone. A brief consideration of modern methods of military censorship and of con-

trol of means of transmission of reports will cast some light upon our problem and form an interesting and suggestive beginning of critical studies.

Again, attention of pupils may easily be directed to conflicting or contradictory statements in reference books of the simpler sort. Even textbooks often reveal in places sectional pride or bias in the authors. Indeed, high school students often speak of such contradictions and ask for the explanation. Here is the teacher's opportunity to awaken interest in historical criticism.

Lastly, there is the resource of study of documentary extracts for evidences and causes of error. Into this, time does not permit that we should go in detail. But a portion of a speech of Demosthenes, a letter of Queen Elizabeth, a sermon by Latimer, may serve to reveal the hidden play of motive, the influence of circumstance or opinion of the writer. Such studies have untold value for the sort of training which may be claimed as distinctive for history.

Methods of Attaining and Testing Efficiency in History Instruction in Secondary School

BY GEORGE A. CRIBBS, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Sometimes the teacher is inclined to wish that he were dealing with more material things. It would be so much easier to judge the efficiency and results of his work. The cobbler can tell by the row of shoes at closing time whether he has accomplished much or little; the farmer at the end of the season can measure his success by the fullness of his barns and granaries, and the merchant by the balance on his books. But for the teacher there is no tangible product by which he may judge, no visible fullness of the brain with well rounded grains of knowledge; in his book-keeping he can strike no exact balance of debit and credit. He is often sowing in the dark, and the soil that promised least, in the end may yield the finest fruit.

Within the teaching profession, it is harder to judge of results in some branches than in others. One of the hardest to judge is history. The teacher of mathematics can tell whether his pupil has a comprehension of the past lessons by his capacity to understand the succeeding ones, and the same is true, to a greater or less extent, of Latin, German, physics, and the natural sciences. These are developed on a scientific basis, step upon step. Of literature and history this is not so nearly true. These two are essentially cultural, and culture is hard to measure.

Perhaps the main difficulty in judging our efficiency is that we do not have in mind a definite result for which we are striving. We cannot tell when we have reached a journey's end without first having a certain end in view. We cannot judge our efficiency in teaching any subject without first laying

Our final standard, then, is the use of the historical judgment. The good teacher will make due provision for this training, and the poor one will ignore one of the most important kinds of cultivation which may be claimed for history.

In conclusion, and by way of summary, the standards by which the teacher may judge his or her own work in history will be not only the general teaching standards of motivation, organization, evaluation and initiative, but the more distinctly characteristic standards which we have elaborated, viz., concrete and objective teaching, application of historical truth to social and historical situations, analysis and interpretation of social phenomena, and the use of historical judgment. The writer is convinced that the approximation of these criteria by teachers of history in secondary schools will not only make history a more vital subject for children and youth, but will also be of material aid in making historical teaching one of the most important elements in training and equipment for the practical duties of daily living.¹

down definite ends to be attained. When this is done the problem is half solved.

I do not claim that the four standards, which I suggest, are the only ones which can be applied to the history teacher, or that they can be applied to the history teacher exclusively. They are general in their nature, and some of them may well be set up as standards to be attained in the teaching of other subjects.

The first question for the history teacher to ask himself is whether his pupils are acquiring a knowledge of how to study and use books. No other teacher has a better chance to develop this valuable ability in his students. Through the wealth of material provided by our school and public libraries he may guide his followers, and show them how to gather what is essential in the quickest and most scientific manner.

At the outset the teacher may give a lecture on this subject, and lay down a few general principles and directions for the use of his pupils. If this were more generally done, we should not so commonly find students in the upper grades who do not know the use of an index or how to get knowledge from an encyclopedia. If he has periods for supervised study, the teacher's problem is much simplified, for here he has both a chance to direct his pupils and to judge how well his instructions are being followed.

¹ A paper read before the Gary Conference on History Teaching in the Secondary Schools, held under the auspices of the University of Indiana, February 26, 27, 1915.

The most fruitful method of training in the use of books is that of directed collateral reading, both of secondary and of source materials. With beginning classes the assignments should be carefully given by book-title and page, but after an apprenticeship at this kind of work, a gradual transition to topical assignments may be made, and the pupil left to find the material by means of tables of contents and indices.

Special reports yield excellent results in training the student to find and assimilate knowledge from different sources. Written themes, which should be frequently required, are in reality but a kind of special report, only here the report is produced in written form. This has a certain advantage in that all the pupils of a class may give the same report, and each one gets the value that in the former case was largely limited to a single individual.

A little supervision of the pupil's study will soon reveal to the teacher the facility with which he is able to use books, as will also the quality and technique of his special report and theme work. Tests on the subject matter of collateral reading should be given at regular intervals, say ten or fifteen minute tests, at least once a week. In these tests questions on the general procedure of investigation, use of books, and bibliographies of topics which have been studied may be introduced.

The second standard to be attained is a spirit of responsibility and independence on the part of the pupil. He should not feel that the teacher is driving him to work, but rather that they are co-workers in the same field. Otherwise the work stops as soon as the pupil goes out from under the direct control of the teacher. But once cause a pupil to feel the thrill of independent discovery or creation and he is a student of your subject forever.

The teacher should not consider his pupils as so many receptacles into which he may ladle the abundance of his knowledge. The lecture method has little use in the high school. On the other hand, the class room should, as far as possible, be made a place for free conversation and exchange of ideas, with a premium on the discovery of something new rather than on an excellent reproduction of the text.

Pupil activity in class should be encouraged, and, if practicable, student class government may be tried. With some classes this has been found very successful, and affords some excellent parliamentary training, besides teaching the pupil to work with a minimum amount of guidance from the teacher.

This feeling of responsibility and independence is a very elusive thing and hard to measure, but the teacher with his class will soon perceive its spirit, as shown by the spontaneous interest, activity, and self control of his pupils.

The third standard which the history teacher should set up for his attainment is the development of a critical attitude on the part of his pupils. The pupil should be taught not to accept blindly the statements of any author, but to compare the evidence and accept that which seems most reasonable.

Collateral reading of parallel texts, special works, and source materials will soon develop this attitude in the average student. Oral reports and theme work, where they compel the student to refer to various authorities, will soon show him that it is unsafe to accept the statements of the secondary writer, and also that it is often very difficult to interpret rightly the facts of the source, even if they should be accepted as correct.

This attitude will soon exhibit itself in recitations, and particularly in special reports and theme work. In the latter it may be engendered as well as tested by requiring the writer to give references and footnotes, discussing the sources of his information and their reliability.

The fourth and last aim of the teacher should be a permanent increase in the pupil's knowledge and power to apply the same. With all our insistence on method of study and development of character, this must still remain as one of the chief aims of our history teaching.

But even here many of our teachers fail. Their pupils remember the facts long enough to pass the monthly or semester tests, and then blissfully forget them all. I believe that this is principally due to too much insistence on unessential details and lack of co-ordination and systematization of the important things. If teachers would only religiously apply a few fundamental rules, I believe that the important facts would, in most cases, be retained for life and become an important part in the working knowledge of the pupil. The first of these rules would be to put special emphasis on important things and subordinate, or entirely omit, unimportant things. The second is an insistence on the clear and interesting presentation and co-ordination of subject matter, and, wherever possible, an application of the same to, or comparison with, present-day situations and conditions. If these two simple rules are applied, and frequent reviews given in order to fix the facts and their relations more firmly in mind, the working knowledge of the pupil will gradually and permanently increase.

The pupil's knowledge and power of applying it are easily tested. The method is none other than that of our old traditional oral quiz or the monthly and semester tests.

As was formerly stated, these make no pretense of being the only legitimate standards for judging the efficiency history teaching or the only means of attaining and testing this efficiency. But the teacher who will set out with these four ends in view, who will teach his pupils the proper use of books, develop in them a spirit of responsibility and independence, as well as a critical attitude toward what they read, and at the same time permanently increase their historical knowledge and power of applying it, will have gone far toward making himself a successful teacher of history.

The Schoolbooks of Our Ancestors

BY MORRIS G. BISHOP.

The schoolbook of to-day, the aristocrat of the book world in editing and manufacture, has no long line of distinguished ancestors. The schoolbook as such dates back hardly more than three hundred years, and it was not till the middle of the eighteenth century that any extensive attempt was made to fit the text to the child's intelligence.

The most primitive and obvious method of teaching reading was to give the beginner an alphabet and bid him read whatever he pleased. Some progress toward a graded system was made in the abecedaria, lists of easy syllables, which appeared some time during the Middle Ages. Then some forgotten genius tacked the abecedarium, a single written or printed sheet, to a little oblong board with a handle at the short end, like a spade, fastened over the sheet a piece of more or less transparent horn, passed a thong through a hole in the handle, and hung the completed instrument of learning, the horn-book, about the pupil's neck. Its great virtue was that it could not be lost or soiled or worn; its defect that it was so brief and so hard to read.

The substance of it seldom varied. First came a cross, a charm "against the devil that may be in the letters"—hence the term "Christ-cross" or "criss-cross" row; next two alphabets, one of small letters and one of capitals; then three rows of syllables, those mystic incantations that sounded in every American schoolroom down to very recent times—"abebib" and "babebibobu," and last, "In the Name of the Father" and the Lord's Prayer. And there the child's education usually ended.

The earliest horn-books—of about 1450—were written in Latin in black-letter. At the time of the Reformation they appeared in English. They were used universally for many years in America as well as in Europe, but finally gave way before cheaper paper and printing and more extensive demands.

Shakespeare knew the horn-book. He says in Richard III:

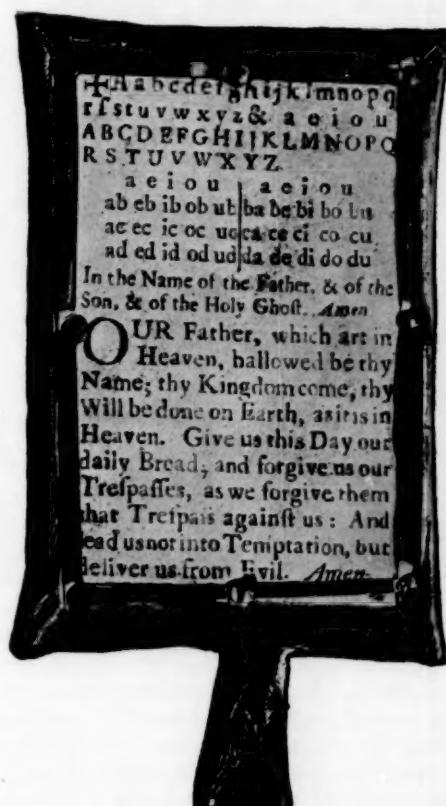
He harkens after prophecies and dreams;
And from the cross-row plucks the letter G,
And says a wizard told him that by G
His issue disinherited should be.

References to it in our literature are numerous. Cowper's description is colorful:

Neatly secured from being soiled or torn,
Beneath a pane of thin translucent horn,
A book (to please us at a tender age
'Tis called a book, though but a single page)
Presents the prayer the Saviour deigned to teach,
Which children use, and parsons—when they preach.

The horn-book passed; the battledore book threw in its place. The name "battledore" was first aptly applied to the horn-book, and lingered on very aptly in reference to a device that had no resemblance

to a battledore. It was merely a stiff cardboard sheet folded once, with a little flap, like a pocketbook. It included alphabets, sometimes illustrated, syllable lists and prayers. The back was often blazoned magnificently in Dutch gilt, an art now lost, and not very generally regretted.



A HORN-BOOK

From the Collection of Mr. George A. Plimpton

The horn-book and battledore books held the same place in education that the primer does to-day. The first primers were not children's reading-books, but religious manuals, with creeds and prayers to suit the particular beliefs of the sect that published them. Martin Luther wrote a "Child's Little Primer" containing the Lord's Prayer, the Commandments, the Creed and a Catechism. Henry VIII's progress toward Protestantism is marked by the tone of the successive official primers. These devotional manuals were adapted for children's use by the insertion of a page of alphabets and syllables.

Of this sort was "The New England Primer," the first schoolbook written and published in America. Its author, Benjamin Harris, a London Puritan bookseller, was obliged to leave England because of his too truculent piety. He landed in Boston in 1687,

and opened a book-and-temperance-drink-shop, doubtless something like a village drug store. Here, in their hours of cultured ease, gathered the literary luminaries of New England, as their successors did at the Old Corner Book Store two hundred years later. Harris had published in England a child's primer—"The Protestant Tutor" (1686?). He felt the lack of such a book in America, and therefore wrote, and published, between 1687 and 1690, the first American schoolbook, "The New England Primer."

It was a tiny book, about three inches by four,



BATTLEDORE BOOK
From the Collection of Mr. George A. Plimpton

printed in small, irregular, hand-cut type. Most of the pages looked blotched and mottled; some letters were filled with ink and some had left hardly a hint of their outline; the coarse woodcuts looked as if they were engraved with a jackknife. The children read these indistinct pages by the light of the wood-fire or by tallow dips; few parents were concerned with eye-strain or astigmatism. Surely we have much to be thankful for!

Yet this little book of about eighty pages contains the very soul of New England Puritanism, its savage theology, its contempt of joy and tenderness, its sturdy self-reliance, and its noble emphasis on right living. Following a frontispiece—in the earlier editions a child at his prayers, in the later ones a muddy blot said to be General Washington—are six pages taken up with alphabets, syllables, and words for spelling. Then follow some dozen pages of horrible wood-cuts, representing animals and birds and scriptural scenes. These are succeeded by a number of "Verses for Little Children," which deal principally with yawning graves, the probability of an early death for little children, the eager rage of hell, and the vindictiveness of God. The child is taught to praise God—

That I was brought to know
The Danger I was in,
By Nature and by Practice too
A wretched slave to Sin.

That I was led to see
I can do nothing well;
And whither shall a Sinner flee
To save himself from Hell?

The last third of the book was taken up with the Westminster Catechism, and usually John Cotton's "Spiritual Milk for American Babes." Many a child's brain must have reeled with the effort to distinguish between Justification, Adoption and Sanctification, and the benefits that either accompany or flow therefrom. The book closed with a Dialogue, in verse, between Christ, Youth and the Devil. The Youth declares:

So I resolve in this my prime,
In sports and plays to spend my time;
Sorrow and grief I'll put away,
Such things agree not with my day.

The Devil heartily approves, and says that if he

. . . with thy brothers wilt fall out,
And sisters with vile language flout,
Yea, fight and scratch, and also bite,
Then in thee I will take delight.
If thou wilt but be rul'd by me
An artist thou shalt quickly be.

All remonstrations are in vain, and the Youth, viciously resolving to become an artist, dies suddenly and in horrible agony on the last page. Death then proclaims:

Thy soul and body I'll divide,
Thy body in the grave I'll hide,
And thy dear soul in hell must lie
With Devils to Eternity.

This mental and spiritual food proved very popular: "The New England Primer" had a tremendous sale in England and Scotland as well as in America. As late as 1849 it was stated that a million copies of modern editions had been circulated in the preceding twelve years. Paul Leicester Ford has estimated that the entire production was three million copies. But about the middle of the last century it vanished before the secular primer.

Another religious primer, or rather First Reader, that seems very quaint in our eyes, is the "Hieroglyphick Bible" (Boston, 1814). It looks like some of the puzzle pictures we see in children's magazines; the place of almost every noun is taken by a "lively and striking image." The same principle is made use of in our modern primers, but improved methods of reproduction give the illustrations a more convincing appearance.

Until very recently, spelling was not considered an exact science, uniform and immutable; the Elizabethans spelled, as they wrote, with magnificent abandon. The origin of the American spellers is un-

known; but we have a record of some printed by Stephen Daye in Cambridge, between 1642 and 1645. Probably they were reprints of Coote's "English Schoolmaster" (1596), the first English speller. A very popular book, both in England and in America, was Dilworth's "New Guide to the English Tongue," a complete little book, with syllabaries, word-lists, easy lessons containing the words to be memorized, a table of words identical in sound (such as *isle* and *oil!*), a grammar, arranged in question and answer form, moral anecdotes, moral stanzas (the first headed "Life is short and miserable" and the last "Live to die"), and a number of Select Fables, enlivened by clumsy woodcuts. This book gave way before Perry's "Only Sure Guide to the English Tongue" (1785).

But those were Revolutionary days; the colonists repudiated English textbooks with English rule and commercial supremacy. In 1783 appeared "The First Part of a Grammatical Institute of the English Language," later known as "The American Spelling Book" by Noah Webster, Esq., one of the most influential schoolbooks in the history of education. Dr. Chauncey A. Goodrich said: "To the influence of the old blue-back spelling book probably, more than to any other cause, we are indebted for that remarkable uniformity of pronunciation in our country which is spoken of with surprise by English travelers." Its sale was enormous. Practically every one of our great national heroes was nourished on "Old Blue-Back," and in some ultra-conservative districts the children still recite their "a-b-abs" from its pages. It was the popularity of this book that gave rise to one of the most curious of our national customs—the "spell-down."

In form the book is an interminable maze of word-lists, arranged roughly according to the number of syllables. Biblical proverbs, moral tales and fables are interspersed as reading lessons. The place of the Westminster Confession in the earlier sectarian primers is taken by an elaborate "Moral Catechism," harassing the child's mind with such subtleties as "Of what advantage is generosity to the man who exercises it?" "How can charity be exercised in our opinions of others?"

Noah Webster's great "Grammatical Institute of the English Language" was divided into three parts. The third part, which first appeared in 1785, has the distinction of being the first American Reader. It had few predecessors even in England. At first the only common reading book was the Bible; and later, perhaps, some instructive homily like "The School of Virtue" or "The School of Good Manners." In Stourbridge, Conn., in 1754, "in order to give the youthful powers of elocution their finishing touch they were exercised on the first book of Chronicles, the tenth chapter of Nehemiah, or wherever else the teacher could find a page of pure Hebrew names."¹ As for the method—"The principal requisites in read-

ing, in these days, were to read fast, mind the 'stops and marks' and speak up loud. As for suiting the tone to the meaning, no such thing was dreamed of,



A Page from "The New England Primer"

in our school at least. . . . 'Speak up there, and not read like a mouse in a cheese, and mind your stops,' such were the principal directions respecting the important art of elocution."²

Webster's Reader, even by modern standards, is an excellent book. It includes many stirring tales of Revolutionary heroes, of Indian captivities, of classical heroisms. One division is devoted to poetry, and a surprisingly large part of the book is taken up with dramatic dialogues. It is easily seen that it is not so much a Reader in the modern sense as a book of selections for declamation.

But Webster's Reader was not very successful. It was soon followed and eclipsed by Caleb Bingham's "American Preceptor," of which 640,000 copies were sold by 1832. Bingham also wrote a "Columbian Orator" which almost displaced the Bible as a speaking book. Lindley Murray's "English Reader" was likewise very popular; it is a cheerless and very dull book, consisting largely of "accounts of affecting, mournful exits." "The American First Class Book," by John Pierpont (1823), is notable in many ways. He discarded the elaborate introductory "Rules for

¹ Small, "Early New England Schools." Ginn and Company, Boston, 1914.

² Warren Burton, "The District School as it Was," Boston, 1833. It is interesting to compare the method used at Bedford, Mass., about 1800, as related by W. F. Stearns, of Amherst College: "The master pointed with his pen-knife to the first three letters and said: 'That's A, that's B, that's C; now take your seat and I will call you by and by, and if you can't tell them I will cut your ears right off with this knife."

Reading," which taught, for instance, that the pauses for the comma, semicolon, colon and period should be in the ratio of one, two, four and six. He chose many of his selections from contemporary authors—Scott, Irving, Channing, Bryant, Wordsworth and Byron. Even humor and sentiment are included. His introduction might be read with profit by many a writer of children's books of our own day.

In 1827 an interesting book appeared in Keene, New Hampshire: "Easy Lessons in Reading," by Joshua Leavitt. It was designed to make an easy stepping-stone from the spelling book to the standard reader. It is concerned largely with the misdeeds of Greedy Harry, Covetous Peter, Careless Isabella, and other bad little boys and girls. But no longer, as in the old "New England Primer" days, is their naughtiness rewarded by death and everlasting torment; they become very sick, or are lengthily reprobated by an elder brother, whereupon they reform and lead a changed life.

English grammar was originally an application of Latin grammar to our barbarous idiom. Bullokar's "English Grammar" (1580) was the first in the field. The first American grammar was the second part of Noah Webster's great trilogy, the "Grammatical Institute of the English Language." It was the least successful of his works, and was soon outclassed by Bingham's "Young Lady's Accidence: designed for the use of Young Learners, more especially for those of the Fair Sex, though proper for either." This in turn gave way before Lindley Murray's famous "English Grammar." A little book that seems far ahead of its time is "The Little Grammarians" (1829). The grammatical terms are illustrated graphically by means of pictures. For example, a teacher is represented with upraised birch (active), above a cowering pupil (passive), while another child sits apprehensively on a chair (neuter).

Arithmetics were rare in Colonial days. The first English arithmetic was Record's (1540), and Greenwood's was first in the colonies in 1728. But "cyphering" was taught universally by the sumbook, a manuscript collection which represented the teacher's life work. From this treasury he dictated sums which the pupils worked out and transcribed in their own little sumbooks. Abraham Lincoln's sumbook is still in existence. Thomas Dilworth, the author of "The New Guide to the English Tongue," found it necessary in the introduction to his "Schoolmaster's Assistant" (about 1765) to remark: "It is possible that some, who like best to tread the old beaten path, and to sweat at their business when they may do it with pleasure, may start an objection against the use of this well-intended Assistant, 'that to teach by a printed book is an argument of ignorance and incapacity.'" Another curious allusion in his Introduction to this standard arithmetic follows: "I hope I shall be forgiven if I drop a word or two relating to the fair Sex. It is a general remark that they are so unhappy as seldom to be found either to spell, write or cypher well: a year's education in writing is, by many, thought enough for Girls."

The book, as its title indicates, is intended for the teacher, not the student. Like so many of the textbooks of the period, it is arranged in question-and-answer form. An arithmetic more familiar to Americans is Nicholas Pike's (about 1788), which received a flattering testimonial from George Washington. Many of his problems afforded training in contemporary history; as, "General Washington was born in 1732; what was his age in 1787?" His "Rule for Tare and Tret" is illuminating: "Deduct the tare and tret, and divide the suttal by 168, and the quotient will be the cloff, which subtract from the suttal, and the remainder will be the neat."

The early American algebras are few in number and of little general interest. However, one sometimes happens on a quaint problem, as this one from John Bonnycastle's "Introduction to Algebra" (Philadelphia, 1806): "A man and his wife usually drank out a cask of beer in twelve days; but when the man was from home, it lasted the woman thirty days; how many days would the man alone be in drinking it?"

In those days geography and history had no place in the elementary schools, though the grammar schools and colleges gave courses in ancient geography, ancient history and mythology. Geography was first made an entrance condition to Harvard in 1815. Yet before this, two geographies had appeared; that of Jedidiah Morse and that of Nathaniel Dwight. Dwight's contains no maps, and Morse's but two, each about six by seven inches. Neither is enlivened by pictures. Yet forbidding as they appear in comparison with modern geographies, they are well written and make extremely interesting reading. Dwight's is in the form of an interminable dialogue: a certain Q, insatiate in his thirst for learning, cross-examines A; A responds in a manner at once exact, unwearying and elegant. For example:

"Q. Are there any curiosities in Rhode Island?

"A. Pawtucket Falls may be esteemed a curiosity; the water falls about fifty feet, not perpendicularly, but in a manner uncommonly pleasing, and is conveyed to various mills."

It was not long, however, before a true pedagogue wrote a geography that altered completely the methods of teaching the science. Peter Parley's "Child's Own Book of American Geography" appeared in 1831. The customary order, beginning with the planetary system and ending up with American cities, is discarded; old Peter Parley tells, in a pleasant, gossipy manner, of a journey through America. A series of questions on the text is found at the bottom of every column, and a more elaborate questionnaire at the end of every chapter. There are sixty spirited engravings and eighteen full-page maps, hand colored. Besides this geography, Peter Parley, known to his fellow-townsmen as the Reverend Samuel G. Goodrich, of Boston, wrote a large number of elementary schoolbooks—"First Book of History" and "Tales of the Sea" among others.

Latin, Greek and Hebrew were the only languages taught in Colonial times. The Harvard entrance re-

quirements read: "Whoever shall be able to read Tully, or any other such-like Latin author at sight, and correctly, and without assistance to speak and write Latin both in prose and verse, and to inflect exactly the paradigms of Greek nouns and verbs, has a right to expect to be admitted into the college, and

no one may claim admission without these qualifications." In the grammar schools the boys were first taught the rudiments by a simple "Accidence." Then came the grammar, which was memorized entire, and the "Colloquies" of Maturin Corderius or Comenius' "Orbis Sensualium Pictus." The most famous Latin

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STATE OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

fishing. They go out upon the water in little vessels, and having caught a good many cod-fish, they carry them to the islands and dry them on the rocks; they then send them to Boston, or some other market for sale. While we are on these islands we may perhaps get a sight of the Sea Serpent. He is said to be as large as the mast of a ship, and has frequently been seen, along the shores of New England. Here is a picture of him.



3. Having returned to Portsmouth we will get into the stage and travel through Exeter, and Dover, to Concord. At Exeter there is a fine Academy, where boys are taught grammar, Latin, Greek and other things. At Dover there are a great many manufactories. These are situated on a little river called Cocheco. This river you will see marked on the map, but the name of it is not put down. The manufactories consist of a great many very lofty buildings with a multitude of windows. The water of the river comes pouring over the rocks in a flood and turns the wheels of the manufactories. These wheels set the machinery in motion within the buildings, and thus the cotton and wool are first spun into threads, and then

woven into cloths. There are a great many men, women and children in these buildings. If you go into one of them you will be astonished at the busy scene. One of these factories makes 100,000 yards of cotton cloth in a single week. This cloth is carried to Boston, New York, Philadelphia and other places. It is bought by the merchants and then sold to the people. It is very probable that some of the clothes worn by my little readers are made of cloth manufactured at Dover.

4. We shall at length reach Concord; this is a pleasant town, but not so large as Portsmouth. We shall notice a handsome stone building here called the State House. In this building, some of the people meet every year to make laws for the state; they are called the Legislature.

5. We will now make a trip to the White Mountains. A great many people go there every year from Boston, New York, and other places. It is very interesting to travel among these lofty mountains.

6. In our journey from Concord we shall observe that New Hampshire is a very hilly state, but many of the hills are covered with fine pasture, and you will see a great many sheep and cattle upon them. The people



tants? The sea serpent? What do you see in the picture? 3. What of Exeter? Dover? Describe the manufactories. How many yards of cloth does one factory make in a week? What is done with the cloth made at Dover?

4. What of Concord? What is the Legislature? Where do they meet? 5. What of the White mountains? 6. What shall we see in our journey?

Grammar was Lily's, published in 1513, and still in use in St. Paul's School, London. Its ascendence in New England was somewhat impaired by Cheever's "Latin Accidence," which appeared in Boston in 1709, and was last printed in 1838. It is notable as being one of the few schoolbooks of American origin prior to the Revolution. Terrible things these grammars were, distinguishing twenty-five kinds of nouns and seven genders. The quaintest of the early Latin books was the "Visible World" of Comenius. Though first published in 1658, it was reprinted in New York as late as 1810. It consists of about one hundred fifty lessons; each lesson comprised a woodcut and about half a page of text in Latin, with the English in a parallel column. The subjects range from "God" and "The Last Judgment" to "Flying Vermin" and "The Stove in the Bedroom." The definition of a school is enlightening: "A School is a Shop in which Young Wits are fashioned to Virtue, and it is distinguished into Forms. . . . Some talk together and behave themselves wantonly and carelessly; these are chastised with a Ferula and a Rod."

As for modern languages, no one conceived that they could be of any cultural value, and they were certainly of little practical value. The Puritans hated the French, and hated their language as well. The first French instructor, one John Mary, came to Harvard in 1780; in 1784 he published the first American French Grammar.

Almost all the books that have been described have been brought together by Ginn and Company, and are on exhibition in the Teachers' Rest Room of their Exhibit in the Palace of Education at the Panama-Pacific Exposition in San Francisco. Here these veterans—discolored, warped, broken-backed, pitiful—crowd against the trim books that are seen in every school to-day. They bear the marks of many a school-yard battle, of many a fall in New England snow and mud. An interesting link between the old and the new will be found in a facsimile of the New England Primer, a copy of which Ginn and Company are giving with their compliments to each visitor. Whoever would know the minds of our forefathers and the springs of their conduct could do no better than spend a few hours with the New England Primer and the other books that moulded these sturdy people. And likewise, let us look well to the books our children read; may the shapely volumes of to-day hold no less healthful lessons than did those of the past!

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Civic Education for Immigrants

Each year a large number of aliens in our various municipalities are admitted through the naturalization courts to American citizenship. Several cities have realized this fact, and held public receptions to citizens recently naturalized; thus recognition was given to this new patriotism for a community citizenship. Also, through this means, a real sense of the opportunities and sacred duties of citizenship has been brought to these "New Americans," and at the same time those who are native citizens have received not only an impetus toward a fuller citizenship, but have even been given a better understanding of the naturalized citizen.

Los Angeles, Philadelphia, and Cleveland all have had such receptions. Baltimore held its reception under the name of a "New Voters' Day." In Cleveland last year the "Community Sane Fourth Committee" took the responsibility for such an exercise, and the program was arranged by a sub-committee representing every patriotic and civic organization in the city. This reception was conducted in this manner: Through the co-operation of the clerks of naturalization the names and addresses of aliens admitted to citizenship for the past year were secured, and an invitation sent to each. At the celebration every newly naturalized citizen on entering the auditorium and showing a ticket was presented with a small American flag and a gold-plated button, bearing the seal of the city, with the word "Citizen" inscribed upon it. An immense platform decorated with flags of all nations was reserved to seat the new citizens. The audience itself was secured by general publicity through the American and foreign newspapers.

The program opened with a band playing various national airs. With the unfurling of a large American flag, the Star Spangled Banner was sung and the "Pledge of Allegiance" recited in unison. Governmental officials representing the nation, State, and city spoke. An appreciation for the reception was given by one of the prominent foreign-born citizens.

A new significance can be given to the teaching of the "Declaration of Independence" with this civic emphasis placed upon the day set aside to commemorate it.

This new patriotic spirit for American citizenship is becoming national in scope, and is co-ordinating the courts of naturalization, patriotic organizations, and the boards of education. In a few cities the boards of education are conducting citizenship classes with the co-operation of the courts of naturalization. Los Angeles has perfected this phase of "community civics" to a high degree. Several citizenship receptions are held under the auspices of various patriotic organizations during the year for the students who attend the naturalization classes of the public schools. On these occasions, which may be called commencement exercises, each successful naturalized applicant is made very proud when his name is called and he receives his "certificate of citizenship" as a diploma.

The possibilities of the citizenship receptions as a means of Americanization are tremendous. School superintendents, city officials, naturalization officers, foreigners' societies, and public-spirited individuals can be the forerunners in the creation of a domestic immigration policy, and contribute materially to the assimilation of the immigrant. Each citizenship reception can be made the means of organizing an "American Club" among the new citizens, thus cementing the bond of civic spirit created among them. Naturalization courts and school authorities working hand in hand can make these men citizens not only by law, but in fact as well.

American Colonial History in High School

BY ALBERT E. MCKINLEY.

The colonial history of the United States is well established as a part of the school program of the elementary schools; it furnishes, too, an excellent field for advanced college and university research courses, but its position in the high school is becoming increasingly unsatisfactory, facing even a virtual elimination from the course in the near future.

In the grammar grades the colonial period fits into almost any theory of school history, whether that theory be the biographical, the culture-epoch, the neighborhood or the picturesque. The appeal of the Indian life, with its primitive customs, its direct sensations and its metaphorical language, is always a stirring one to the imagination of the child. He welcomes, too, the story of deeds of adventure and daring drawn from the lives of early explorers and colonists. And later he is attracted by the quaintness and simplicity of the settler's daily life—his rude home furnishings, his battles with nature and savages, his struggle for a livelihood gained from new sources and under new conditions, his simple social customs, and his European religious institutions. Finally the child may be brought, either at the beginning¹ or the close of his study, to correlate this older life with his own, and to see its importance to the present existence of his community. There is abundant material in this colonial history not only to fulfil the child's desires, but also to satisfy any theoretical maker of school programs.

As a field for advanced college courses and for university research, the colonial period still presents many untilled areas. We have only recently realized the fact that the colonies were part of the British Empire, and that their administration and exploitation meant much to the mother country. A number of studies of the English colonial administration have been made,² but there is still room for many more. Some few aspects of colonial agriculture, industry and commerce have been carefully investigated, but there is great need of monographic studies, based on local and family records, of the economic history of the colonies. There are also many opportunities in this field for new studies in biography, in religious organization and practice, in colonial education and intellectual life, in political factions and political development, and in social customs. The reports of the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution of Washington contain calendars of thousands of documents bearing on the colonial

period, of which a great many have never been used by historians. For the research student, whether he be tinged with a respect for the economic, the institutional, or the biographical aspect of history, the colonial period shows to-day many enticing avenues and by-paths for exploration.

But what of the position of colonial history in the secondary school? Colleges, indeed, still require all of American history for entrance examinations, and they kindly insist in setting a few questions upon this period. But this influence with public high schools is decreasing in force every year, and the tendency is for the college to accept whatever history the schools teach well. And against this slight influence of the colleges, there are two strong movements which threaten to curtail the emphasis placed upon colonial history in the high school, if they do not actually result in eliminating it from the course.

The first of these movements is that embodied in the Report of the Committee of Five. This committee of the American Historical Association, reviewing the work of its predecessor, the Committee of Seven, suggested four periods of history for the secondary school: (a) Ancient History to 800 A. D.; (b) European History from the standpoint of England, down to 1760, and including American Colonial History; (c) Recent European History from 1760, and (d) American History from 1760, and Civics, the latter taught separately from the history. This plan places American colonial history where it logically belongs, and makes it up to 1760 but a part of the history of England and Europe. But this logical advantage is gained at a considerable cost. The colonial period comes at the close of the course—a course which is crowded with the great movements of the Middle Ages, with the eras of the Renaissance and Reformation, and with the social and constitutional development of England. The experienced teacher may reach the colonial period with sufficient time and enthusiasm to do something more than review the grammar school work in the subject. But under a great many teachers the colonial period will suffer, as the Teutonic invasions and Charlemagne's reign are slaughtered in the closing days of the ancient history course.

In the second place, the colonial period is threatened with eclipse as a result of the present tendency to emphasize recent history. This movement, at first urged in regard to European history, has spread to the American field, and our textbooks and courses of study are now developing the period since 1865 at the expense of the colonial era. Such a transfer of emphasis appeals to practical men and school administrators because it seems more readily to interpret the present, and because it lends to history a more

¹ Johnson, "Teaching of History," pp. 190-196.

² E. g., Root, "Relations of Pennsylvania with British Government;" G. L. Beer, "British Colonial Policy," "Origins of British Colonial System;" "The Old Colonial System;" Osgood, "American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century," Vol. III.

patent value and interest. If this new tendency favoring recent history and the proposed divorce of colonial history from national history as recommended by the Committee of Five become effective in eliminating many of the details of colonial history now given in classroom and text-book, there will be few persons to mourn the loss. But if they result in a failure to understand the relations of our national existence to the colonial period, a great mistake will be committed. The present paper is an attempt to show how the colonial period should be treated in any high school course. The suggestions are meant for application not only to the old complete course in American history, but also to the new course beginning in 1760, as recommended by the Committee of Five.

WHAT THE COURSE SHOULD NOT CONTAIN.

Treating the matter negatively first, it is easy to point out the features of the colonial period which should be eliminated from high school work. First, the details of discovery and exploration should be left to the narratives of the grammar grades and to the field of European history, of which they are the legitimate outgrowth. In high school classes, European exploration of North America should be treated as a part of the European occupation of a great part of the world—South America, Africa, Australia, Asia (Siberia and India particularly), the islands of the sea, and North America. Secondly, there should be no attempt to study the narrative history of each of the thirteen English colonies and of the several French and Spanish settlements. Such a study often results in a hopeless jumble of dates, places of first settlement, names of a few prominent men and lists of products, all giving a brief review of facts already noted in grammar school or worthless as additional information. Thirdly, the petty narrative of inter-colonial wars, with needless names of Indian massacres in New England (why not also South Carolina?), and equally needless names of generals and commanders should be jettisoned entirely.

WHAT IT SHOULD CONTAIN.

What then is left in the course? "You have taken out all the dramatic and interesting part of the history of the colonies," I think I hear someone remarking. Yes, we have taken out the old, the familiar facts which the fourth-year high school student dimly remembers from his elementary school, and which, when he meets again, he accepts with a listless "glad-to-meet-you-again" recognition, or an "I-know-it-all" attitude. But what remains? Only *colonial life and institutions*, those fundamental principles of government, society and industry, many of which are still powerful in the life of the nation. Why has America almost alone among the enlightened nations of the world failed to adopt the principle of a responsible cabinet ministry in State or nation? Our colonial history will answer. Why have we an "American Sabbath" far different from elsewhere, and more sacred than in any other country? Our

colonial history will answer. Why do we have our court system, judicial procedure and jury trials? Our colonial history will answer. Why is there no American established church? Our colonial history will answer. Why is our national government organized on a federal principle? Our colonial history will answer. There is no need of multiplying other instances which will occur to every teacher of American history. There seems no necessity of emphasizing further the evident close relation of our present institutions to those of the colonial period; and if the ardent seeker for those historical facts which explain the present will direct his attention to the colonial period, he will find much to ponder over.

LOCAL COLONIAL HISTORY.

It was stated above that the detailed history of each of the colonies should not be studied by each pupil in the high school. It is necessary, however, to make the whole period as concrete as possible, and this should be done as far as possible by specific facts from the student's own environment. He may not study the history of all the colonies, but he should study the history of his own State or of some typical colony. Of course, for the strictly colonial period, this holds true more largely for territory east of the Mississippi River than for that west of it. By this is not meant a denial that the West and Southwest have a respectable colonial history, nor that the local history of those parts should not be taught in the local schools. The claim is made, however, that the colonial institutions of the East have been carried into the Western sections, and that a Westerner cannot understand his own civilization simply by studying French Jesuit Relations, or Spanish Mission history, or the customs of the Sioux or Flathead Indians. American institutions, from Maine to Arizona, and from Florida to Oregon, are all largely indebted to the customs and experiences of the thirteen original English colonies.

A brilliant writer³ has laughingly criticized the teaching of New England history to students in the State of Wyoming, while they remained in dense ignorance of the local history of their own country as a part of Spanish colonial territory. Doubtless there is a place in the schools of Wyoming or of California for the study of the Spanish colonial system; but had the critic closed his eyes to the immediate plot of land on which the Wyoming school-house stood, which probably was never traversed by Spanish foot, and sought the origin of the pupils' language, their representative institutions, their religion, their judicial and social customs, his search would have landed him not in Spain, but in England, *via* the original thirteen colonies. A Hebrew lad pronouncing the valedictory address at a high school commencement many hundreds of miles from Boston, quite properly referred to *his forefathers* who landed at Plymouth Rock. For all American social purposes, he was as much the descendant of the Pilgrims as if

³ E. E. Slosson, HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, V, 44.

he belonged to some Mayflower society which traces its blood lineage and its furniture back to the sacred one hundred passengers upon that famous ship. Local history should be inserted in the school programs of West and Southwest, but it should not displace in the general course on American history, the great facts of English settlement and expansion.

TOPICS FOR THE PERIOD.

Successfully to treat colonial life and institutions, it is necessary to divide the life of the times into topics and to study each of these in some detail with concreteness, and with illustrations, where possible, from the student's own locality. Opinions will differ widely as to the topics to be chosen for this purpose, but in spite of the danger of criticism of details, the following topics are recommended: (1) The frontier and its significance; (2) Political Institutions, provincial and local; (3) Religion, and the progress of toleration and separation of church and State; (4) Education, elementary and higher; (5) Intellectual life; (6) Social conditions and classes; (7) Economic activities.

THE FRONTIER.⁴

The frontier should be treated not only in its picturesque features with illustrations of dangers and privations, but also in its philosophic relations. The colonies first were the frontier of England, where old institutions were brought into touch with new life conditions; where feudalism and titles of nobility were destroyed in infancy by a new democratic spirit almost unknown in Europe, and where English law and authority could scarcely be enforced except with the consent of the governed. Here English governors time and again were overthrown, and English tax laws were evaded by extensive smuggling. As the far Western American frontier has influenced greatly the older Eastern States, so the radical American frontier played its part in English history during the Civil War and Protectorate of the seventeenth century, and the struggle for reform in the eighteenth century, 1756-1780. In a similar manner the self-governing colonies of England (the imperial frontier) are to-day influencing the institutions of the old country.

Willingness and desire to settle its own problems in its own way is characteristic of the frontier. The self-government established by the Mayflower Compact and by the town agreements in New England, Long Island and New Jersey, may be compared with similar popularly erected bodies in the students' own locality. Instances can be found in almost every section of the United States—e. g., the earliest government in Charleston, S. C., North Carolina Regula-

⁴ The fundamental treatment is by F. J. Turner, "Significance of the Frontier," in American Historical Association Reports, 1893, p. 199; also printed in Bullock, "Readings in Economics." See also article "Frontier" in McLaughlin and Hart, "Cyclopedia of American Government," II, 61, and F. L. Paxson, "The Last American Frontier," Chapters 1, 2.

tors, the early governments of Tennessee and Kentucky, Iowa claim associations, Vermont and Colorado attempts at statehood, and California vigilance committees. The economic, social and military equality of the frontier shows itself in relatively greater political equality than in older communities. The colonial suffrage qualifications were more liberal than those of old England, just as those of the old Northwest were more liberal than those of the Atlantic Coast in the early nineteenth century, and as woman suffrage is spreading from the West to the East in our own day. Attention also should be drawn to the frankness—almost rudeness—of frontier manners; to the absence of ostentation; to the spirit of mutual helpfulness;⁵ to the common social and religious experiences, and the influence of these factors upon the older settlements.

From such a study of the colonial frontier, the student will come prepared to appreciate the enduring influence of the frontier in modern civilization. The newer communities readily modify the institutions which their inhabitants brought from old States; and these older States, whether in Europe or America, are more slowly giving up the old under the suggestive force of the experiences in the new frontier.

POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS.⁶

The study of colonial political institutions should be arranged so as to show how English parliamentary customs and traditions were modified in the new settlements, and how these colonial modifications have developed into our present State and national governments. The study here should be made as simple and concrete as possible. Beginning with the English Parliament of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (see Cheyney, "European Background of American History," Chap. 13), the pupil should be brought to see the reproduction in each one of the colonies of a miniature of the mother of parliaments. Governor, council and house of assembly correspond more or less closely to king, lords and commons of the English body. How closely? Here a concrete study should be made either of the colonial legislature of the students' own locality, or, if he lives outside the original territory, then of some typical body, like the first Assembly of Jamestown, 1619. Where

⁵ HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, VI, 33-37.

⁶ See J. Fiske, "Civil Government in the United States" (historical sections); W. Wilson, "The State," sections 1032-1060; Cleveland, "Organized Democracy," chapters 2-5, 10; West, "Source Book of American History," 51-90, 178-236, 298-359; Channing, "History of United States," II, 282-310, 319-339; Doyle, "English Colonies," V, 77-100, 138-145; Hart, "American History Told by Contemporaries," II, 127-223; E. B. Greene, "The Colonial Governor;" Osgood, "The American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century;" McKinley, "Suffrage Franchise in English Colonies." There are, of course, many detailed studies of political institutions in individual colonies and comparative studies in all; see particularly "Johns Hopkins Studies in Political and Social Science" and "Columbia University Studies in History," etc.

the legislature was erected by English charter, the actual text of the charter⁷ should be consulted. If the Virginia Assembly is studied, an interesting lesson can be had. The account of the secretary has been preserved,⁸ from which the composition of the body can be gained, their method of seating in the church building, their appointment of committees, and the actual legislation adopted. The class may impromptu be called upon to impersonate the legislature, and with the help of the secretary's description, they can easily place chairs for the governor, the secretary, the councillors, the speaker, the sergeant and the deputies. If time permits, the class so organized may proceed to take up the work of the assembly, as outlined in the journal.

After the study of some one representative body is completed, a similar method may be adopted with reference to local government. The bare generalizations about New England town meetings and southern county government given in text-books should be filled in with the easily accessible data⁹ showing how a town meeting actually was conducted, and what functions were really performed by a county court. And the method may be followed, if time permits, into the judicial system,¹⁰ or into the character and method of punishment for crime.¹¹

COLONIAL RELIGION AND RELIGIOUS LIBERTY.¹²

The character of American religious institutions is largely an outgrowth of colonial experience. The student should realize that the distinctive American idea of separation of church and State and the American Sabbath are both an outgrowth of the early period. Such terms as established church, religious toleration, religious liberty and separation of church and State may be illustrated from colonial times. The class is then ready to take up four features of colonial religion. First, the New England establishment and its moral and social concomitants, with the significance of the meeting-house may be treated. Concrete

⁷ See Macdonald, "Select Charters of American History" for selections; for charters in full see Thorpe, "Charters, Constitutions [etc.] of the United States."

⁸ Hart, "Contemporaries," I, 218; West, "Source-book of American History," 53-63; McKinley, "Illustrated Topics for American History," No. 6; Macdonald, "Select Charters," 34; McLaughlin, "Readings in the History of the American Nation," 7-12.

⁹ Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 214-223; West, "Source-Book of American History," 230-245; Caldwell and Persinger, "Source History of the United States," 103-106.

¹⁰ Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 188-204.

¹¹ McKinley, "Illustrated Topics for American History," No. 12; Ames, "Peculiar Laws and Customs of Colonial Days"; A. M. Earle, "Curious Punishments of By-gone Days"; Old South Leaflets, No. 164.

¹² See Cobb, "Rise of Religious Liberty"; A. M. Earle, "The Puritan Sabbath"; Howe, "Puritan Republic"; O. Straus, "Roger Williams"; Bruce, "Institutional History of Virginia," I, 3-28, 62-94, 194-276; Schaff, "Church and State in United States," American Historical Association Papers, II; biographies of William Penn. There are many studies of religion, religious intolerance, and struggles for religious freedom in the several colonies.

incidents often mean much, and throw light on primitive conditions. In Newark, N. J., in 1669, a committee was appointed to solicit contributions of nails, to be used in building the meeting-house.¹³ In New Haven, in 1647, we find the following town record: "Mr Newman, the ruleing elder, propounded to the courte that they would grant brother Wigglesworth a small piece of ground neare the meeting-house, to sett hime a little house upon and make hime a garden, because he is so lame that he is not able to come to the meeting, and so is many times deprived of the ordinances [divine worship], when if he was neare he might enjoye them. The courte considering and pittyng his ease, inclined to do it and left it to the dispose of them whoe are intrusted to dispose of lotts in the towne."¹⁴ Such an instance can be used to show the importance of the meeting-house, as well as the method of apportioning land in the town.

Second, the Virginia church establishment is to be noted. Here we find the Anglican worship supported by public taxes, under which the minister received (after 1696) sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco a year. The legislation concerning the church can be followed in Bruce, "Institutional History of Virginia," and in Cobb, "Rise of Religious Liberty," pages 76-94, or better yet in Hening, "Statutes at Large of Virginia." The influence of the establishment upon morals may be pointed out.¹⁵ A good exercise can be based upon a comparison of pictures of New England meeting-houses with church structures of the middle and Southern colonies.¹⁶

Third, the instances of religious liberty and separation of Church and state, which at first were treated as irreligious communities, must be studied as sources of our present practice. A few brief extracts should be used to illustrate this novel policy. Among these may be Roger Williams' likening the State to a ship on which the captain could not compel the passengers to come to ship's prayers, but could require all to join to save the ship and cargo;¹⁷ the Maryland Statute of Religious Toleration;¹⁸ Penn's letter respecting his views on toleration and his "holy experiment,"¹⁹ and the first amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The American system of voluntary church support should be understood. Finally reference should be made to the growth of toleration in the eighteenth century. The teacher can show how the early religious enthusiasm died out, how bigotry declined, how commercialism increased, and how the multiplying of sects made church establishments more unjust than when all or nearly all of the inhabitants belonged to one denomination.

¹³ "Newark Town Records," 18.

¹⁴ "New Haven Colonial Records, 1638-1649," p. 368.

¹⁵ Lodge, "Short History of the English Colonies," pp. 55-61, 119-124, 150-152, 176; Hart, "Contemporaries," I, 294.

¹⁶ See illustrations in Wallington, "Historic Churches of America."

¹⁷ Straus, "Roger Williams."

¹⁸ West, "Source Book," 102; Hart, "Contemporaries," I, 291.

¹⁹ Caldwell and Persinger, "Source History," 90-92.

COLONIAL EDUCATION.²⁰

Education in the colonies included (a) dame schools, (b) public or private schools where the three R's were taught, (c) grammar schools, where Latin grammar was taught, (d) academies, with a less rigid curriculum, and (e) the colleges, beginning with Harvard, in 1636, and closing with Hampton-Sydney, in 1776. For a vivid account of the schools and their text-books see Eggleston, "Transit of Civilization," pp. 209-218, where the horn-book, the abeesees, the primer and the early texts are described. Messrs. Ginn & Co., of Boston, have republished a copy of the New England Primer, which is furnished to teachers free of cost. Illustrations of the early schools and textbooks will be found on pages 243-247 of this number of the MAGAZINE, and also in Graves' "A Students' History of Education." A college student's diary and a skit on college education are printed in Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 266-275. The rules governing the New Haven Grammar School in 1684 will be found in Brown, "The American High School," pp. 9-12. Upon these rules it is not difficult to frame a concrete series of questions bringing out the facts concerning the old grammar school and the educational ideals of the times. What were the duties of the school master? What were the hours of school sessions? What were the entrance requirements? Was tuition free? What were the duties of the monitor? What religious instruction was given? What punishments were inflicted on scholars? Is the course of study outlined? A document such as this can readily be mimeographed and handed out to the class for careful study.

Where there are educational institutions in the students' vicinity, dating back to colonial times, an effort should be made to gather facts about the early history of these schools. A number of secondary schools and nine of our colleges trace their history to dates previous to the Revolution.

The student must not leave this subject of education without realizing the significance of one feature of New England's educational institutions. Laws for the establishment of public schools were passed in several colonies outside of New England, but they were never enforced. To New England, and particularly to Massachusetts, belongs the credit for establishing a series of schools, supported by the towns, open to all inhabitants (not always gratis), and graded from the elementary schools through the grammar schools to the college. Such an organization may well be called a public school system, al-

²⁰ See Boone, "Education in United States;" Dexter, "History of Education in United States;" Small, "Early New England Schools;" Thwing, "Higher Education in America;" Birdseye, "Individual Training in Our Colleges;" Brown, "The Making of Our Middle Schools;" West, "Source Book," 230-236; Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 255-275; Eggleston, "Transit of Civilization," 209-255; Clews, "Educational Legislation and Administration of the Colonies;" A. D. Mayo, "Public Schools During the Colonial and Revolutionary Periods," Rept. U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1893-4, I, 639-738.

though it lacked sadly the elements of administrative control over the individual schools and many other features of present school systems. High school pupils appreciate the quaintness of the language and the serious religious feeling in the statute of 1647:

"It being one cheife piet of y^e ould deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of y^e Scriptures, as in form^r times by keeping y^m in an unkowne tongue, so in these latt^r times by pswading from y^e use of tongues, y^t so at least y^e true sence & meaning of y^e originall might be clouded by false glosses of saint seeming deceivers, y^t learning may not be buried in y^e grave of o^r fath^rs in y^e church & comonwealth, the Lord assisting o^r endeavo^rs,—

"It is therefore ord^{ed}, y^t ev'y towneship in this jurisdiction, aft^r y^e Lord hath increased y^m to y^e number of 50 household^rs, shall then forthwth appoint one wthin their towne to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and reade, whose wages shall be paid eith^r by y^e parents or mast^rs of such children, or by y^e inhabitants in gena'lll, by way of supply, as y^e maior pt of those y^t ord^r y^e prudentials of y^e towne shall appoint; pvided, those y^t send their children be not oppressed by paying much more yⁿ they can have y^m taught for in oth^r townes; & it is furth^r ordered, y^t where any towne shall increase to y^e numb^r of 100 families or household^r, they shall set up a gramer schoole, y^e m^r thereof being able to instruct youth so farr as they may be fited for y^e university, pvided, y^t if any towne neglect y^e pformance hereof above one yeare, y^t every such towne shall pay 5£ to y^e next schoole till they shall pforme this order."²¹

An amusing contrast may be had by referring to the duties of good Carel van Beauvois, schoolmaster in Brooklyn in 1661:

"The Court of Breuckelen respectfully represent that they found it necessary that a Court Messenger was required for the Schepens' [Magistrates'] Chamber, to be occasionally employed in the Village of Breuckelen and all around where he may be needed, as well as to serve summons, as also to conduct the services of the Church, and to sing on Sundays, to take charge of the School, dig graves, etc., ring the Bell, and perform whatever else may be required: Therefore, the Petitioners, with your Honors' approbation have thought proper to accept for so highly necessary an office a suitable person who is now come before them, one Carel van Beauvois."²²

INTELLECTUAL LIFE.²³

There was comparatively little pure literature produced in colonial times, if we limit literature to productions designed to give aesthetic pleasure. But the period was prolific in its production of writings upon

²¹ Brown, "American High School," 8, 9.

²² Stiles, "History of City of Brooklyn," I, 116; Hart, "Contemporaries," I, 585.

²³ See Doyle, "English Colonies in America," V, 222-235; Greene, "Provincial America" (American Nation Series), 203-204, 312-315; Tyler, "History of American Literature," I, II; Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 255-275;

topics which were uppermost in men's minds. In the earliest period there are the narratives of explorers, the contemporary accounts of settlers, and then more comprehensive descriptions of the American colonies, either by occasional sojourners, or by leaders such as Smith, Winthrop, Bradford or Hubbard.

In the colonies during the seventeenth century, as in old England at the same time, there was a great mass of religious literature, sometimes in the form of occasional sermons, sometimes polemical pamphlets, like those of Cotton, Williams and Penn, and occasionally attempts to show on a large scale the hand of God in New England's history, such as Johnson's "Wonder-working Providence" and Mather's "Magnalia Christi-Americana." At times the serious-minded writer tried to brighten his discourse with rhetorical or rhythmical decorations, as when Williams, writing of the Indian's customs, says:

"The Indians prize not English gold,
Nor English Indians' shell;
Each in his place will passe for ought,
What ere men buy or sell.

"English and Indians all passe hence,
To an eternall place,
Where shels nor finest gold's worth ought,
Where nought's worth ought but Grace.

"This Coyne the Indians know not of,
Who knowes how soone they may?
The English knowing prize it not,
But sling't like drosse away."
* * * * *
"If Birds that neither sow nor reap
Nor store up any food,
Constantly find to them and theirs
A maker kind and Good!

"If man provide eke for his Birds,
In Yard, in Coops, in Cage,
And each Bird spends in songs and Tunes
His little time and Age!

"What care will Man, what care will God,
For's wife and Children take?
Millions of Birds and Worlds will God,
Sooner then His forsake."²⁴

Or like George Alsop in the conclusion to his "Character of the Province of Mary-Land":²⁵

"'Tis said the Gods lower down the Chain above
That tyes both Prince and Subject up in Love;
And if this Fiction of the Gods be true:
Few, MARY-LAND, in this can boast but you:
Live ever blest, and let those Clouds that do
Eclipse most States, be alwayes Lights to you;
And dwelling so, you may for ever be
The only Emblem of Tranquility."

Stedman and Hutchinson, "Library of American Literature," II; Lodge, "Short History of English Colonies," the alternate chapters on colonial life in 1760; histories of American literature, of printing and of journalism.

²⁴ Williams, "A Key Into the Language of America," in Narragansett Club Publications, I, pp. 118, 178.

²⁵ Printed, London, 1666; reprinted in Md. Hist. Soc. Fund Publications, No. 16; also, in part, in Hart, "Contemporaries," I, p. 267-271.

Other subjects which may be treated under the intellectual life are: the colonial newspaper, political literature after 1750, the knowledge of science,²⁶ and the formation of libraries.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS AND CLASSES.²⁷

Under this topic the aim is to give a concrete picture of colonial society. Much can be done in class-work by assigning topics to be studied by individual students, such as professional life in New England, indentured servants in Maryland, slavery in South Carolina, amusements and social pleasures in colonial times, traveling in 1750,²⁸ costumes in the colonies,²⁹ home-life,³⁰ etc. With Lodge's "Short History of the English Colonies," if other works are not available, and a system of specific references and topics, a clear idea of colonial life can be obtained.

ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES AND CONDITIONS.³¹

Colonial agriculture, not of the plantation type, warrants attention, especially in rural schools. Pictures of implements and tools may be studied; actual objects may be brought to the school by pupils; or visits may be made to local museums, of which the best in the country for agricultural implements and home utensils is that of the Bucks County Historical Society at Doylestown, Pa. Not only implements, but also local barns, rotation of crops and methods of preparing food may be noted. The Swiss barn, developed in a mountainous country of Europe, has an entrance for cattle on the lower hillside to a first floor, and an entrance for wagons on the upper hillside to the second floor. It has been copied in many parts of the country, an artificial hill often being made in order to reach the second story.

The plantation system of the South presents many points of contrast to the Northern farm. It is different in its wide extent, in its dependence upon one or two staple crops, in the relatively large proportion of negro laborers, and the colonies or huts of

²⁶ See lives of Franklin.

²⁷ The alternate chapters in Lodge, "Short History of English Colonies," furnish a mass of information concerning social conditions about 1760. See also Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 224-243, 291-311; James, "Readings in American History," 106-125; Caldwell and Persinger, "Source History," 107-122; the various works of Alice Morse Earle; S. G. Fisher, "Men, Women and Manners in Colonial Times."

²⁸ See A. M. Earle, "Stagecoach and Tavern Days;" also Dunbar, "A History of Travel in America," I.

²⁹ See A. M. Earle, "Two Centuries of Costume in America."

³⁰ See A. M. Earle, "Home Life in Colonial Days."

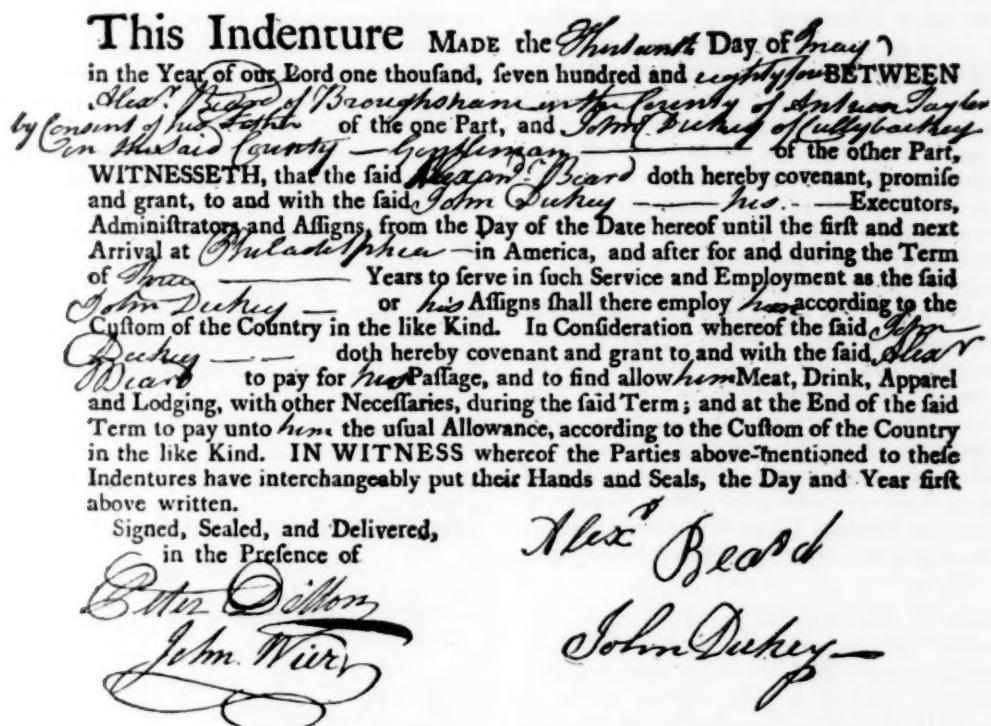
³¹ It is impracticable to do more than give the few references on this topic which are most accessible for high school work. Coman, "Industrial History of United States," Chap. 3; Bruce, "Economic History of Virginia;" Weeden, "Social and Economic History of New England;" Greene, "Provincial America" (American Nation Series), 270-291; Doyle, "English Colonies in America," V, 3-48, 115-125, 153-162; Lord, "Industrial Experiments in the Colonies;" Callendar, "Economic History of United States," Chaps. 2, 3; Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 244-254.

the slaves. It is different too in that its principal crops were raised for a far-distant market, and that the income was expended largely in foreign countries or England.

Forests both in New England and North Carolina furnished a great source of wealth, and in the former led to the development of the ship-building industry. The fisheries furnished the greatest industry of New England. Salt fish were sold either to the West Indies slave plantations or to the Catholic countries of Europe. Whales furnished oil for illuminating purposes, superior to the lard oil or the tallow dip of the day. The fur trade was of great value in the earliest history of the colonies, but as the frontier was pushed

facturing industries and manufacturing centers of the middle and New England colonies. In many cases the language could not have been stronger if it had been used in describing Fall River, Mass., or Philadelphia in the twentieth century. Evidently here is the evil of text-book and classroom generalization; it furnishes no concrete picture of a colonial town and its industries; the mind holds only a memorized group of words.

Colonial commerce deserves a prominent place in the study of the economic life of the day. In its imperial aspects it will be treated in another paper. In its local phases, the subject should include: (a) the articles exported and how a surplus supply of



A REPRODUCTION OF A SERVANT'S INDENTURE.

Loaned by President Cheesman A. Herrick, Girard College, Philadelphia.

back, and a permanent population established, this trade declined relatively in importance.

Manufactures were rudimentary, designed to meet local needs, and never were allowed by England to become serious competitors of the mother country's industries. The restrictive legislation belongs properly to the topic, "English Colonial System," which will be treated in another paper in this series; or it may be taken up in connection with the causes of the Revolution. It is a serious mistake for the pupil to picture the Northern colonies as manufacturing communities; yet in a group of fifty entrance examination papers in American history read a few days ago by the writer, almost every one described in broad generalities the contrast between the plantation system of the Southern colonies and the manu-

each was obtained; (b) the avenues of trade, particularly the triangular voyage from New England to the West Indies, then to Africa or Europe, and then back home; (c) the articles imported, comparing in this respect the Southern colonies with New England; (d) the vessels employed, commercial methods used, etc.

Slavery and the indentured servant system³² may be treated in connection with social classes, but these systems had their roots in agriculture and industry; they constituted a social stratification based upon

³² See the references under "Social Conditions and Classes," and Bruce, "Economic History of Virginia," I, Ch. 9; II, Chs. 10, 11; Doyle, "English Colonies," V, 243-256; West, "Source Book," 364-368; Callendar, "Economic History," 742-752; Hart, "Contemporaries," II, 291-311.

economic needs, and are to be compared with the organization of labor in present-day industry. Slavery in South Carolina and Georgia may be compared with that in Virginia and in New England. The actual text of one of the slave codes would be interesting for class study, but so far as known, none of the source books has reprinted these laws.³³ The picturesque features of runaway slaves and servants, with the measures adopted for their capture and punishment, are usually treated in the textbooks.³⁴

For apprentices, indentured servants and redemptioners, who played such a large part in the labor of colonial times, the actual text of local indentures should be used. If these are not available, a typical one like the following may be studied and analyzed:

"This Indenture Witnesseth That Peter Smith of his own free will . . . Hath bound and put himself, and by these Presents Doth bind and put himself servant to the sd Edwin Vallette to serve him his Executors Administrators and Assigns from the day of the date hereof for and during the full term of Three years from thence next ensuing—During all which said term the said servant fully shall serve, and that honestly and obediently in All things, as a good and faithful servant ought to do. And the said Edwin Vallette his Executors Administrators and Assigns during the said term shall find and provide for the sd Servant sufficient Meat Drink Apparel Washing and Lodging—and also to give him 18 weeks' Schooling—And at the expiration of his term the said Servant to have two complete Suits of Clothes, one whereof to be new—And for the true performance the Covenants and Agreements aforesaid the Said Parties bind themselves unto each other firmly by these Presents. In Witness Whereof the Said Parties have interchangeably set their Hands and Seals hereunto. . . ."³⁵

Such a study of the colonial period as that outlined can readily be conducted in the opening days of the American history course. It is not essential that each topic be studied in great detail, nor is it desirable that this period be emphasized to the exclusion of equally important periods in the later history of the United States. It is suggested that the material here presented be used for not more than seven or ten class periods.

The method has a number of advantages over the routine study of discovery, exploration, settlement and colonial wars. In the first place it presents to the student a new group of facts which are likely to hold his attention and interest. Secondly, it shows him at the outset of the American history course that there is a great deal more in American history than he learned or could learn in the elementary schools. Thirdly, it furnishes an excellent opportunity to develop methods of work independent of the text-book

at the very beginning of the course, since no text-book as yet has been written from the standpoint here given. Later in the course, when the text-book is used, it will be with no feeling of reverence and awe, and throughout the year it will be easy to transfer the classwork from text-book to collateral reading. Finally, the method proposed gives the student an idea of the continuity of history, and a knowledge of the sources of our institutions which he may not gain in any other work.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

No extended list of books on colonial history can be given here. The references printed above are mainly to easily accessible works which can be found in school or public libraries. The sum of ten dollars would purchase a working set of books on this period. For detailed references the teacher should use Andrews, Gambrill and Tall, "A Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries" (Longmans, Green); Channing, Hart and Turner, "Guide to the Study of American History" (Ginn & Co.); Root and Ames, "Syllabus of American Colonial History" (Longmans, Green); Hart, "Manual of American History, Diplomacy and Government" (Harvard University); the bibliographical chapters in each volume of the American Nation Series (Harpers); the bibliographies in Winsor, "Narrative and Critical History of America" (Houghton, Mifflin); Larned, "Literature of American History," and the volumes entitled "Writings on American History," published annually since 1905.

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ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, Ph.D., Managing Editor

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³³ See Hening, "Statutes at Large of Virginia," III, 447-459; IV, 126-134; VI, 104-112.

³⁴ See West, "Source Book."

³⁵ Geiser, "Redemptioners and Indentured Servants in the Colony and Commonwealth of Pennsylvania," p. 113.

American Biography as a College Freshman Course

BY MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR., LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY.

As an experiment, in the summer session of 1913, Professor Walter L. Fleming, head of the department of history at Louisiana State University, offered a course in American biography, for which no pre-requisite was exacted. The demand for the course and the interest displayed caused its incorporation into the regular curriculum as "History 11-12, American Biography." For the session of 1913-14 the course was given by Dr. Fleming, and during the present session it is being given by the writer.

With regard to content and method, the course includes a summary view of the lives, characters and services of about twenty of the leading factors in American history, who (in the words of the catalogue) "have contributed in a marked degree to the formation or development of the Union. Special attention is given to matters of character and personality, and an effort is made to arrive at a proper appreciation of each individual as an influence in American history and as a product of his environment." The subjects are arranged in a roughly chronological order, those of a dominantly national interest being grouped in the first term's work as "History 11, American Statesmen." Such names as Washington, Franklin, Webster, Lincoln, etc., etc., appear therein. "History 12, Southern Leaders," continues the course during the second term. It includes no one whose life was not of import to American history as a whole, but names included are those of men dominantly Southern in their sympathies or sphere of work, *e.g.*, Davis, Yancey, Calhoun, Benjamin, etc., etc. Where a good biography of the requisite length and price is available it is used, for example Thayer's "John Marshall" and Brown's "Andrew Jackson." Each student is expected to hand in on the day a man's career is taken up, an outline of his life based on such sketches as can be found in encyclopedias and biographical dictionaries. In addition, each student must do a considerable amount of collateral reading in books taken from a carefully selected list of biographies, memoirs, histories, etc. Reports on this reading are also required which sometimes take the form of definite topics, such as "Calhoun as Secretary of War," "Jackson's Invasions of Florida." At other times the student may be required to report on a certain work, for instance, Tarbell's "Lincoln;" again the student is occasionally permitted to select that phase of the subject's character or life which appeals most and treat that. These reports are frequently read and discussed in class, at other times merely turned in for the instructor's inspection. Where he deems it necessary he criticises and returns them. In any case, the student is responsible for a certain amount of work and study on each man's life. The class is required to recite on the events in the lives of the

men studied, the recitations being based on the textbooks (where used) and the parallel reading. The necessary "background" of the current history of the period involved (*e.g.*, the war of 1812 in studying Clay and Jackson) is supplied by the instructor, though in no case does he consume as much as a whole period by lecturing. Rather, by comment and criticism, he fills in the hiatuses left by the students. This class meets thrice weekly, and from four to six periods are devoted to each subject.

Such a course supplies several needs in our freshman class. In the first place, a large number of students enter college at the beginning of the second term (February 1), and it is not desirable to have them enter the prescribed course, History 2 (Modern) without the background of History 1 (Medieval). Yet in many cases there is no freshman course which serves so well as an introduction to the use of the library as history. Since there is no pretense at continuous narrative in History 11-12, a student can enter at any time and keep abreast of the work. The preceding paragraph will show how the course compels the student to acquaint himself with the nature and use of the contents of the library. Next, we have students who are anxious to make history their major work, and come to college with that intention, but as History 1-2 is naturally the pre-requisite to all the other courses, the freshman had no chance at any more history before his sophomore year until History 11-12 was instituted. As no pre-requisite is demanded, it can be elected by freshmen, whether they enter in the fall or the spring. Of course we usually have a few in the course who are not freshmen, but the latter constitute the bulk of the class. This course also serves as a preparation for the more intensive study of American history offered in various courses. Having a speaking acquaintance with some of the leading "makers of the nation," with a slight background of the events and associates of their times, the students who take this course can enter more easily into the problems of a continuous course. Naturally we have some students who are not particularly interested in American history and would not ordinarily elect such a course as the one in the general history of the United States, but are glad of such an elective as History 11-12, and from it gain a slight insight into American history from the college standpoint which otherwise they would not obtain. A course in American history suitable for freshmen would be so much like what they have just had in the secondary school that it would fail to interest them, while one that was really worthy of a college course would be over their heads. History 11-12 seems to us the happy medium.

The students show much more interest in it than in the average freshmen history course, so as a result of our experience with it in one summer session and

two regular sessions, under two different instructors, we have come to the conclusion that it is a very desirable element in the work of our department. Though not primarily intended as such, it is also a help to the students as a preparation for the sophomore course in American government required by the department of political science. By acquainting the students with the literature of American political history and by the study of such topics as Jackson's struggle with the bank, Jefferson's purchase of Louisiana, Adams and the Alien and Sedition laws, Marshall's leading decisions, etc., etc., the way is paved for a systematic study of the principles underlying Federal and State governments. So far it is too early to note any marked effects on the students' work in the other courses in history and politics, and no attempt has been made at a comparative estimate of the work of those having had History 11-12 with that of those who have not. But it is

safe to assume that the former would have what the Herbartians call a greater "apperceptive mass." The ethical possibilities of such a course are obvious, but no effort is made to point a moral, the study of the deeds of the great men is left to do its own silent work.

The chief difficulty we have found has been the securing of suitable texts. In many cases the existing biographies are either too juvenile, as Scudder's "Washington," or too expensive, as Schurz's "Clay." The latter would of course also be too long for our purpose. Where we can find no proper text-book, we have had to require a greater amount of parallel reading and direct it more specifically. It is also usually necessary for the instructor to do more of the discussion than where a text is available.

The members of the history department would appreciate any comments and suggestions from their co-workers in other institutions.

History in the Grades

BY T. A. HUTTON, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, SPEARFISH, S. D.

A little girl was one time asked if she could tell what sort of a man Alexander the Great was. She replied, "Why, no, I thought he was just one of those historical characters."

There are so many of those so-called "historical characters" in elementary history as it is taught today. It will be at least one of our objects in this paper to give some suggestions, if possible, whereby more real life may be put into our teaching.

We have every reason to congratulate ourselves on the increasing attention that is being given to the study of history in the elementary grades. At the Madison Conference of 1892 it was reported that then there was an average of only one year of history in the grammar schools of the country. The American Historical Association of 1905 was the first prominent organization to receive an official report on the elementary school. At this meeting, such suggestions as the following were studied:

1. Suggestions for a course of study in history for the first four grades.
2. Suggestions for a course of study for the last four grades.
3. The European background.
4. Elementary history in European schools.
5. Relation of history to geography and literature.
6. Suggestive methods, text-books and supplementary material.
7. Civics in elementary schools.
8. What preparation for the teaching of history should be expected of the teachers in the grades.
9. What has thus far been accomplished in the formation of a course of study in history for the elementary schools. Since that time, then, history teaching in the grades has been receiving some of the attention really due it.

I need only suggest to you what you already know—that the most important factor in the school room is the teacher. It is an easy matter, of course, for any so-called teacher to watch his pupils as they pass from one paragraph to another in their recitation, and if the pupils ask no questions there is little danger of the teacher telling an untruth. If history is to be of any educational value, and if pupils are to be given an insight into real social life, and a vital interest in books and facts is to be aroused, then the teacher must have character and enthusiasm and not a little knowledge. These are absolutely essential if he is going to vitalize the subject for his pupils. Children should be made to see that the world is the product of past ages, and they should learn the value of handling books, and to think and speak clearly of human affairs and the doings of the human race.

Whether you have ever seen a poor teacher or not, you will agree that good teachers are more essential than good text-books, for a poorly equipped teacher can, and too often does, nullify the results to be obtained from the very best text-books.

Teaching of the best quality calls for as much knowledge of the *pupil* as of the subject-matter. Many of our very scholarly men and women fail in the class room because they lack a sympathetic insight into the needs, interests, capacities and knowledge of the pupils. The successful teacher is always in possession of such insight and sympathy.

May we now outline in a general way what we think should constitute the study of history in the grades? You are all doubtless more or less familiar with the "Report of the Committee of Eight," which is simply a study of history in the elementary schools and a report on this study to the American Historical Association. This report was published in 1909, and is the last official word on this particular study.

We heartily agree with this committee that too much stress has been laid upon the Atlantic Ocean as a natural boundary not only of America, but also of American history; "that the America of to-day, its civilization, its institutions and its traditions can best be explained in the light of the previous history of the people who came to America;" but we do not agree with the committee in saying that the best way to accomplish this is to cover American history once in the first five grades, and a second time in the seventh and eighth, throwing in between in the sixth grade as they do, a study of the Greeks, Romans, Germans and English.

We hold that the movement of history is continuous; that American history can be best taught only when given in its relation to world history, and that such a course as that proposed by the committee will have a tendency to destroy this continuity at which we should aim.

We believe, contrary to the recommendations of the committee, that history in the grades should be gone over but once, that there should be no repetition except short reviews given from time to time to keep in mind the general line of thought. It has been our observation and experience that constant repetitions of history and historical stories in the grades deadens interest and kills the desire for later real study of history. The Committee of Eight, then, would cover American history at least twice in the elementary school.

The course that we propose is somewhat as follows:

We believe that a study of history may be profitably carried on in all the grades of the elementary school. You may not care to call the work in the first six grades by the name of history, but that does not matter so long as we get the subject-matter we are after. We would start the first lesson with a study of the most ancient peoples—those inhabiting the Nile and Tigris—Euphrates valleys. Stories full of facts regarding the Phœnicians as a seafaring people and as the originators of the alphabet may be told in an interesting way even to first graders. The movements of civilization may then be traced through the Greek and Roman peoples. From the fifth century to 1492 the events that should attract attention are the Germanic occupation of Europe, the empire of Charlemagne, feudalism, chivalry, the Norse discovery of America, the Roman conquest of Britain, the disagreement between the Roman church and the German rulers, the movement of the Crusades, the development of certain European nations, the Renaissance, and the discovery of America by Columbus. This period is the most difficult to handle with grade children because it is hard to keep continually before the young pupil these general movements. He is too apt to confuse them with less important details.

Careful attention should be given to the manners, customs and home life of the people, laying special stress on what each has contributed to civilization.

Following the Columbian discovery we would study such movements as the Reformation in Europe, and connected with this—the Spanish, English and

French occupation of America; then the religious wars in Europe, together with the founding of the colonies in America; the great French-English struggle for supremacy in Europe; the French and Indian Wars in America; the colonial policy of Great Britain leading up to the American Revolution; the independence of the colonies and the foundation of the new government; the French Revolution and the Napoleonic era in Europe; in America the struggle for certain rights, ending with the War of 1812; the Holy Alliance in Europe with the struggle for Spanish-American independence in America; the rise and decline of Jacksonian Democracy, the slavery movement, the Civil War, the rise of industrial questions, imperialism and the world struggle for democracy and for better social and industrial conditions. Such are the main headings only that are suggested. Some one may object, saying that this is a regular college course. True—it may be made the basis for such, but on the other hand it may be treated so simply that it will appeal to the average grade pupil.

In the primary grades, most of the work will necessarily be done by the teacher, but even there simple reviews may be conducted from day to day which will enable the teacher to clinch, as it were, the work of the preceding day.

Professor Jager says: "The primary condition of historical perception is the readiness to think or to feel the past as present." This is a very difficult thing to do; in fact, almost impossible, and any device that will help do this should be utilized. One method that has been used successfully is that of dramatising history. This *compels* attention by means of stage setting, costumes, etc., to materials that are needed for the proper imaging of history.

Another successful device is that of letting the children imagine themselves in a certain country at a certain time, and then write letters telling what took place. Children may keep diaries, making records of events that they may imagine as taking place in a certain country at a particular time in its history.

Some teachers realizing that the educational value of a story does not depend on its literal accuracy, proceed to fill the minds of the children with historical delusions. There are many teachers who still teach the George Washington hatchet incident, the Paul Revere incident, and that of William Tell—the last of which, at least, has been historically disproved. Teachers should remember that history as well as pedagogy has certain rights. The telling of mythical tales of the Greeks and Romans is simply a waste of time. As one writer says: "What a people *thought* its early history was, may be quite a different thing from what that history *really was*, and there is hardly time in the life of the child to teach both the false and the true." If you do use these myths, treat them as fiction and connect them with literature rather than history. It is hard enough even in a secondary school to distinguish fact from fiction, so why make it more difficult? Teach that it does not matter how long a story has been believed, if it does not rest on good evidence it is worthless.

There are too many teachers to-day who leave the

impression that the good men are for the most part dead. Sometimes the moral life of historical characters is misleading, and not all their acts will bear the closest scrutiny. It, therefore, may be fortunate that the children do not always take these characters too seriously—they are too much inclined to imitate. The profanity of Washington, for example, would not be wise for children to copy.

In the first three grades there should, of course, be no thought of organized history. Here the work should be presented in story form, keeping in mind the fact that the child of these grades is especially fond of the dramatic, of tales of heroism, and exciting adventures. Very little can be accomplished by telling him the meaning of events, for he cannot appreciate their significance, but he *can* understand simple facts and ideas and universal truths as symbolized in stories and incidents, and these can be made appeal strongly to him through his emotions and imagination.

Here, of course, as in all grades, any device that will help accomplish the teacher's purpose, should be utilized. Free use should be made of photographs, pictures, scrap-books, blackboard illustrations and certain games. Teachers should never lose the opportunity to take advantage of holidays for the purpose of emphasizing historical lessons.

Most of the work in the first three grades will necessarily be oral, as already suggested, but by the time the third grade is reached some use may be made of writing from simple blackboard outlines. Some historical truths may be injected by using some simple yet significant sentence for copy in the regular practice writing lesson.

When the fourth and fifth grades are reached, the pupils themselves may be expected to help compose these blackboard outlines. By this time historic readers, of course, will be found of great service, yet even here it is true that nothing can take the place of the teacher's clear and emphatic presentation of incidents, events and descriptions. In the sixth grade a good text-book may be brought into use, in which regular lessons may be assigned.

In grades seven and eight, a more formal study of organized history may be made. Here casual relations may be studied, but only typical events should be emphasized, and these should be presented so as to make a very definite impression. It is in these grades, especially, that there is danger of the teacher expecting too much from the yet immature minds of the pupils. Here, as the Committee of Eight recommends, "Quality and not quantity should be the key word."

It should be unnecessary in this day of teaching to emphasize the fact that no class in formal history should confine itself to one text-book. Almost daily assignments should be made in histories that have a fuller account than the text-book in hand. Such assignments in the grades must be made very definite. Page references must be made or the pupils will waste valuable time in aimless reading. The teacher should not think that her work is done when such assignments are made, for frequently she may

expect even to have to study parts of the lesson with the pupils. The lesson, of course, should be assigned from the standpoint of topics rather than pages.

If pupils are to develop any self-reliance in reciting, there should be less interference during the recitation on the part of the teacher. Some teachers are too insistent that a topic shall be developed in exactly the way they see it, rather than letting the pupil use his own method, thereby developing initiative and originality. Too many teachers are constantly interrupting a pupil with questions, and thus disturbing the free expression of his thought. Let him develop the topic in his own way; then continue the discussion by asking clear, thought-provoking questions.

In order to stimulate pupils to weigh historical evidence, debating may be resorted to, and it will also be found that this will stimulate pupils to read for further information.

In the map work in history, it is advisable to use maps that represent conditions as nearly as possible like they were at the time in which the event took place. It is only confusing to the pupil to use a political map containing a mass of unnecessary details, when tracing out, for example, the routes of early explorers.

The old idea of teaching history from the standpoint of dates is happily a thing of the past, and yet we must not lose sight of the fact that time is an important element in the logic of history. To know when a certain event took place adds materially to one's power of interpreting its meaning, yet it is necessary to keep in mind only the dates referring to the most significant events. Every child when leaving the eighth grade should be familiar with at least such dates as 1492, 1689, 1776, 1789 and 1861-65.

The Committee of Eight reports that "reviews may be biographical, chronological or geographical. If they are biographical, events will be centered about representative men; if chronological, the time element will be emphasized; if geographical, the place element will be made prominent. Perhaps the most helpful kind of review is that which deals with separate phases of historical development. The entire attention may be concentrated upon some single movement like the Indian question, the slavery question, the development of transportation and means of communication or some other historic movement. Such a review will enable the pupil to get an insight into development along a definite line."

Since the appearance of the report of the Committee of Eight with its various recommendations, there have appeared many books which take up particularly the European background for American history. A few of these are especially recommended for the sixth and seventh grades. We mention them in the order of their excellence as is generally conceded by those who have used them.

W. F. Gordy, "American Beginnings in Europe." Published by Scribner's.

Bourne and Benton, "Introductory American History." Published by Heath & Co.

W. L. Nida, "The Dawn of American History in Europe." Published by Macmillan.

Alice M. Atkinson, "European Beginnings of American History." Published by Ginn & Co. In addition, fair biographical use may be made of Lucy Dale's "Stories of European History." Published by Longmans, Green & Co.

I think I need offer no excuse for recommending a complete course of history in the elementary school,

but if such an excuse be demanded, please keep in mind for one thing that a very large percentage of our pupils go no farther with their education than the eighth grade, and practically all the knowledge of history they get is in the grammar school. Such being the case—if for no other reason, but many more might be given—is it not well to give them, as far as possible, a connected story of how peoples and their institutions have developed from earliest time to the present day?

Wanted—A New Order of Reference Books in History

BY E. M. VIOLETTE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

Professor Souissat's article in a recent issue of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, criticizing Professor Macdonald's paper on "College Entrance Requirements in History," brought under discussion the question as to whether college entrance examinations in history should be based on the high school text alone or on the text and collateral reading. I have nothing to say upon that particular issue, but I would like to submit a few suggestions on the general subject of collateral reading in history in our high schools and some of the problems that arise in connection with it.

I think there are very few, if any, high school history teachers who would be content to have their students confine themselves entirely to the text-book, however excellent that might be. For more reasons than one they would like to have them do a good deal of collateral reading. Some would no doubt prefer that the daily classroom discussions should, as a rule, be based solely on the text-book, and would reserve collateral reading for the preparation of special reports and papers. Others may feel that in addition to the preparation of special reports and papers through collateral reading, the students should be required to read beyond the text practically every day in getting themselves ready for their regular classroom exercises.

Now there are some very difficult problems which the high school history teacher has to confront in undertaking to get collateral reading done, especially that which may be required in connection with the daily classroom discussions; and since my interest in this phase of the work is greater than in any other, I wish to consider some of the problems that arise in connection with it. I do not have in mind the problems of the teacher who unfortunately has little or nothing in the way of a school library to which he may send his students. Rather, I am concerned with the problems of the teacher who has a fairly well equipped school library, and whose students are willing to do what is reasonably required of them.

It might appear that a teacher placed under such favorable circumstances as these would have no problems in getting collateral reading done. But if it appears that way to any one, that is because the situation is not clearly understood. Ask the teacher if he has any difficulties and see if he does not confide in you by telling you that he has. And if I am not

very badly mistaken he will tell you that his greatest difficulty lies in the character of the books to which he is compelled to send his students when he undertakes to have them read beyond their texts.

In order to understand the situation let us go through the school library of such a teacher, and see what sort of books are there. And as we pass along the shelves let us ask ourselves the question how many of the books we find there were written for the express purpose of serving as collateral reading in high schools. In other words, how many of these books were written by men and women with the high school students' point of view in mind? If we have never thought of the matter before, we may be a little surprised at the results of our inquiry. Let us see what they are.

As we begin to make some sort of an evaluation of the books we find in this library, we will recognize a great many that will readily fall into one or the other of two classes. First, there will be a number of text-books that are similar to the ones in the hands of the students; and, second, there will be works written primarily for advanced students or specialists. Of what use will either of these be in collateral reading in high school history courses? The text-books will generally be of very little use because of the fact that nowadays all the standard texts follow very much the same plan, so that there is little or nothing in them to raise the students above the plane of the ones that are in their hands. On the other hand, the works written for advanced students or specialists are generally beyond the reach of high school students for anything like practical use, merely because of the lack of time on their part, and because of the limitations of their historical knowledge. If a topic is under investigation, and certain of these books are given as references, the matter may be treated in them at such length as to make it impossible for the students to read the assignments in the time they have for such work, or it may be that what is assigned presumes too much on their stock of historical information, and cannot be properly comprehended. Such a method of procedure has a very deadening effect upon the students, as every observing teacher well knows.

There are, however, some books in this library that we are examining that are neither text-books nor

works written primarily for advanced students and specialists, and are therefore more or less usable by high school students. But the number of such books is entirely inadequate for the needs of collateral reading, and most of them seem to be usable by accident rather than by any intentional design on the part of their authors. Until something is done to increase the number of such books, the high school teacher will continue to have great difficulties in getting the proper amount of collateral reading done in his classes.

What is needed, as I see it, is a lot of reference books written by men and women who know something of and really appreciate the amount of historical information possessed by the average high school students, and who know how to arrange what they have to offer in such a form that it can be used by these students in connection with their text-books. When works of this sort become plentiful, then the problem of collateral reading will be greatly simplified.

Among the many different kinds of books that might be written along the lines just laid down, there is one series which I should like to see brought out, which, for the sake of convenience, might be called companions to the text. And for the purpose of making myself clear regarding them, I am going to suggest by way of illustration how one for mediaeval and modern history might be constructed.

Every text-book on mediaeval and modern history has a chapter on Charlemagne, in which the whole of his career is outlined more or less briefly. This chapter always contains, among other things, an account of the growth of his kingdom, his imperial coronation, and the government of his empire. But these topics are usually treated in so brief a manner as to amount to little more than a bare recital of facts. In the companion to the text which has been suggested, no attempt should be made to bring under review the entire career of Charlemagne in a form that is more extensive than that in the text, but there should be at least three chapters or essays concerning him, one dealing with the growth of his kingdom, another with his imperial coronation, and another with the government of his empire. In these three essays the three topics just mentioned would be more fully developed than they were in the text, and yet in such a way as to make the fuller treatment actually comprehensible and usable by the students. Perhaps one or two other essays on other topics that had been included in the text-book account of Charlemagne might be added to these three, but in all likelihood there would not be any effort to enlarge upon all of the topics.

In a similar manner feudalism might be dealt with. The text-book usually has a short chapter on this subject, which is made up of paragraphs or sections on such things as the castle, the manor house, the system of agriculture, feudal relations, and the like. In the companion book an essay might well be devoted to each of these topics, and possibly a few others that are connected with the general subject of feudalism.

Now, what could be done in the way of enlarging upon certain selected topics in these two chapters of the text-book could also be done for all the other chapters. That is, for each chapter in the text there would be in the companion a series of essays which would develop certain topics in that chapter. Moreover, other essays might be written, to a limited extent at least, upon topics that were not dealt with in any of the chapters of the text, especially if they could be easily introduced along with those that had been included.

Such a work as this would have to be constructed, if it is to be at all usable, so that each essay in it would have a setting more or less definite in most of the standard text-books in mediaeval and modern history. Furthermore, it would have to be arranged so that the use of one essay in it would not require the use of any other. In the very nature of the case, it would be impossible for any teacher to make use of all the essays. For one thing the time would not be sufficient; and, moreover, there would undoubtedly be essays in it that many teachers would not care to use at all. But the arrangement of the material in the several essays and the relation of these to each other and to the text should be such that a teacher, in choosing the essays he would like to use, could do so with considerable freedom, inasmuch as each one of them would stand out largely by itself against the background furnished by the text.

As far as I know, nothing like this sort of a work has ever been attempted. The nearest thing to it are Munro and Sellery's "Mediaeval Civilization," which is a collection of excerpts from well known authorities on mediaeval history, and Beard's "Introduction to English Historians," which is another collection of excerpts from similar authorities on English history. But these books were compiled primarily for college students, and while that does not of itself exclude them from being used to some extent, at least, in high schools, the excerpts they contain have been taken from works that were not written for the use of high school students, and have been subjected to very little editing so as to put them into shape for this use. In other words, the essays in these books of Munro and Sellery and of Beard do not, as a rule, fit very well upon the material offered in the high school history texts.

This plan for a companion to the text-book is based upon the idea that the reading for high school students should be well chosen rather than extensive. The enthusiasm of students for history may be very easily killed by injudicious assignments of reading on the part of the teacher. Moreover, the overzealous history teacher has to be reminded every once in a while that all of his students are not going to become specialists in his subject. Indeed, most of his students will never read any formal historical work after they leave school. What they will get in after life in the way of history will come through the newspapers and magazines. For this reason, if for no other, it is well that while they are in school they should get themselves grounded in the subject as much as possible. They should by all means be re-

quired to read beyond the text, but for the sake of enabling them to acquire definite knowledge from their reading they should have put into their hands that which can be readily assimilated by them.

Some one may say that if the teacher is energetic enough he will find plenty of usable material in the books that are to be found at present in a well-equipped library. Taking the case of Charlemagne that was used in illustration above, one might say that the teacher ought to be able to develop from the many biographies of that great character all the topics he may choose to select. At first glance, this claim looks plausible, and it would seem that almost every subject might be developed from the books that now exist if only they were to be had in sufficient numbers. But the experienced teacher knows that the material that may be wanted to supplement what is in the text, is often imbedded in the context of the books of reference in such a way as to require efforts on the part of the students to get it out that are out of proportion to the results obtained. It is deplorable that students should be required to waste so much time and energy in attempting to read ill adapted assignments in books that are not suited to their needs or state of advancement, and it is because I feel that companions to the texts will in some measure render real assistance in this connection that I am pleading for them here.

But there is another consideration, and that is the expense connected with equipping a school library. It is a lamentable fact that there are many high schools in our country that are without libraries at all, or have libraries whose chief stock is dead timber. The principal reason for this state of affairs is the expense. Books run into money fast, especially if there is an attempt to buy duplicates in any great numbers, which must be done if the library is to be used liberally by the students in preparing themselves for daily classroom discussions. Hence, many schools are prevented from providing themselves with anything like an adequate equipment. Something might be done towards helping the situation if companion books were available. For a comparatively small sum a few duplicate copies of these books could be secured, and, where no library has been started as yet, these could be made the nucleus of one. But companions would serve a good end even in libraries that have already been started. Here they would take the place of the books that have been used heretofore with indifferent success and great difficulty, and would thus add immensely to the effectiveness of the work in history.

Perhaps companions are not needed in American history, at least not so much as they are in the other fields of history. American history usually comes in the senior year of the high school, and by that time the students have reached a certain maturity that enables them to take up and read with understanding books the like of which would be beyond their grasp in their earlier years. Moreover, the very nature of the subject and the general acquaintance of our students with it may lessen the necessity for such a companion.

If a series of companions covering all or most of the fields of history should be published, I believe it would find extensive use in certain college classes, especially those in the freshman and sophomore years, as well as in the high schools. From my own experience of several years with students who have come from good four-year high schools, and who have had from two to four years of history, I know that they are often unprepared for anything like a heavy historical diet, and need just the kind of reading that would be found in the books that have been here suggested.

Reports from The Historical Field

"The World Going to School" is the topic treated in "The World Outlook" for October, 1915. The paper contains many illustrations of school buildings, school classes, school children from all parts of the world.

"Sources of Information on Play and Recreation," edited by Lee F. Hammer and Howard R. Knight, has appeared in a revised edition from the Department of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation. It contains a bibliography of the subjects and can be obtained from the Foundation, New York City, at 10 cents.

The Visual Instruction Division of the University of the State of New York has issued several new lists of topics which have been added to the Albany Collection.

"The Economic Aspects of the War," by Edwin J. Clapp, has just appeared from the Yale University Press.

Harvard University announces in its Division of Education the establishment of two courses on Play and Recreation.

The Johns Hopkins University has organized a College for Teachers, courses in which will be to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education. The college is a result of the experience of summer schools and of college courses for teachers which have been in operation for a number of years. Prof. Edward F. Buchner is the director of the new college.

An International Peace Conference is to be held in Berkeley and San Francisco, October 10 to 13, 1915, under the auspices of the Church Peace Union and the American Peace Society, assisted by a number of allied organizations. The program consists of a large number of topics, many of which have been called forth by the present European War. Many of the speakers are men of national reputation as publicists and educators.

An illustration of the manner in which large interests are appealing for public support is found in the pamphlet entitled, "The Anti-Prohibition Manual for 1915," issued by the Publicity Department of the National Wholesale Liquor Association of America, Cincinnati, O. Teachers of current events will be interested in the statistical, poetical and historical arguments against prohibition which have been gathered together in this pamphlet.

Mr. Charles A. Beyer and Mr. William W. Wuesthoff, instructors in Civil Government of the Rockford, Ill., High School, have issued a pamphlet entitled, "The Government of Rockford and Winnebago County." The pamphlet opens with the pledge which every student reading the book is

advised to take: "I am a citizen of Rockford. I will do nothing to desecrate her soil, pollute her air, or degrade her children—my brothers and sisters. I will try to make her beautiful and her citizens healthy and happy, so that she may be a desired home for myself now, and for her children in days to come."

The pamphlet includes a short sketch of the history of Rockford, its advantages, the basis and nature of government, and the organization of the city government. Other chapters deal with the organization of a town and of the county of Winnebago.

Prof. Carl Lamprecht died in Leipsic on May 10. Prof. Lamprecht is known to historians throughout the world as the leader of the movement toward "Kulturgeschichte," who was exceedingly enthusiastic in the support of his theory of national development, and succeeded in building up about himself a school of young historians. For an estimate of his theory and work, see the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Vol. IV, page 215.

"The American Political Science Review" for August contains a varied list of papers. Among the more important are the following: "Education for the Bar in the United States," by S. E. Baldwin; "The Bicameral System in State Legislation," by James D. Barnett; "The Presidential Preference Primary," by Francis W. Dickey; "Scientific Management of the Public Business," by Morris L. Cooke; "City Manager Plan in Ohio," by L. D. Upson; "Some Reflections on the City Manager Plan of Government," by Herman G. James; "Court Organization for a Metropolitan District," by Herbert Harley, and "Repeal of the Judiciary Act of 1801," by William S. Carpenter.

There is the usual well assorted series of notes, reviews and bibliographical material.

Mr. Bromley Smith, of Bucknell University, has issued in pamphlet form a lecture under the cryptogamic title, "Plunket the Pennanite." It gives some account of the Connecticut-Pennsylvania controversy along the Susquehanna.

That the subject of local history is engaging the attention of educators in the Philippines will be learned with interest by history teachers of the United States. The following quotation from "Philippine Education" for August, 1915, shows what is being done in this direction:

A contest for the best history of a province in the Philippines has been opened in the history department of the college of liberal arts. The history must be complete, and must contain data on the economics, sociology and anthropology of the province concerned, and should also have some riddles, songs and stories. All papers must be handed in by March 1; the first six will be chosen by the faculty of the history department; and the final choice will be made by the president of the University of Manila, who is the donor of the prize. It consists of Retana's "Aparato Bibliografico de la Historia General de Filipinas." The prize will be awarded on commencement day.

What is desired is to obtain complete histories of the different provinces so that in time a comprehensive history of the islands can be written. At the last teachers' assembly in Manila, the history department made an appeal to the teachers regarding the furnishing of historical data, for it is only possible to write a good history of the islands through co-operation, and not through any particular individual effort. It is hoped that the teachers will answer to this appeal.

"The Minneapolis State Archives, their Character, Condition and Historical Value," by Herbert A. Keller, is the leading article in No. 2 of the "Minneapolis History Bulletin."

The fourth number of "Vergangenheit und Gegenwart" for 1915 contains articles upon the relation of national forces to historic events, on the development of the civil and military councils in Prussia, and extended bibliographical notes, including a lengthy bibliography of German books upon the present war (pages 242 to 260). There is also an annotated list of works upon recent European history since 1789.

Number 2 of the "Catholic Historical Review" contains articles upon "The Church of Cuba," "A Forgotten American Hymnodist," "Early Times in the Diocese of Hartford, Conn.," and "The Apostle of the Abnakis (1657-1724)."

NINETEENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF AMERICANISTS.

Secretary A. Hrdlicka announces that in consequence of the war in Europe, the Washington meeting of the Congress, which was originally scheduled for October 5, 1915, was, with the general approval of the membership, indefinitely postponed. Since then it has become evident that the war may last for a long period, and that when it does end, the conditions, economic and otherwise, may be such that a successful meeting cannot be held for many years. Circumstances, however, have now so shaped themselves as to make possible a well attended session of the Congress during the coming winter, notwithstanding the enforced absence of most of the European delegates. During Convocation Week of this year, a number of important scientific bodies, whose interests wholly or in part are closely related to those of the Americanists, and whose membership is in a large measure the same, will meet in Washington. As this seemed to present an excellent opportunity for a meeting of the Americanists, the Organizing Committee took preliminary steps which assure intimate co-operation between the Congress and other learned bodies, and submitted the proposal to hold the postponed session in co-operation or jointly with these organizations, to the vote of the members. The result of this vote was overwhelmingly in favor of the proposal. In consequence, the Organizing Committee feels authorized to announce that the session will be held in Washington, December 27 to 31, of this year; and that it will be held jointly or in co-operation with the Anthropological Section of the Pan-American Scientific Congress, the American Anthropological Association, the American Historical Association, the American Folklore Society, and the Archaeological Institute of America. The program previously published will in the main be adhered to, excepting the field excursions; and the members are urged to communicate with the secretary in relation to the papers they intend to present.

"Now," said the principal to one of the pupils at the close of the lesson in which he had touched on the horrors of war, "do you object to war, my boy?"

"Yes, sir, I do," was the fervent answer.

"Now tell us why."

"Because," said the youth, "wars make history, an' I jest hate history."—Ladies' Home Journal.

A Noteworthy New Book

PROFESSOR JOHNSON'S "TEACHING OF HISTORY."

JOHNSON, HENRY. *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915. Pp. xxix + 497. \$1.25.

This presents both a summary of what has been thought and done in the teaching of history during the last three hundred years, and a discussion of the underlying principles and their application to present problems. His Chapter I—What History Is—explains the nature of "sources" and the historian's use of them, and reviews various conceptions of history that have been held since the time of Herodotus, concluding with an exposition of current views of this subject. Chapter II—The Problem of Grading History—treats of the difficulty of adjusting this school study to the various stages of instruction, and presents the various theories that have grown up respecting the proper order of progression in the subject from the simple to the less simple. To him this "problem of adapting history to the school-room is essentially a problem in presentation" rather than one of subject content. "Facts presented concretely are elementary; facts presented abstractly are advanced."

Critically weighing the various values which from time to time have been claimed for instruction in history he declares in Chapter III—The Question of Aims and Values—that the most fundamental and the most comprehensive aim that can be formulated for historical instruction is to make the general social and political world intelligible to the boy and girl as natural science does the material world. It is good to see that he explicitly declares that a study of more than modern history is necessary to the achievement of this aim, asserting that "we cannot escape, if we really hope to make American society intelligible, the necessity of presenting the principal transformations of humanity."

In Chapters IV and V he considers the place of history in the school curriculum abroad and at home. A very broad acquaintance with the literature of this field and a thorough knowledge of past and present practice are revealed, and the reader is given a fuller and richer treatment of this phase of the subject than has heretofore appeared in English. He points out past practices and their defects, and indicates present tendencies, but refrains from presenting his plan of ideal program, doubtless preferring to await the final reports of national committees now or soon to be at work on the task of determining it. These first five chapters show illuminatingly how deep-rooted in time is the recognition of history as an educational instrument, and proof again is afforded in the course of his admirable account of the struggle during the last three centuries with the problems of grading, presenting and teaching history in the schools that there is nothing new under the sun in the realm of educational theory and endeavor.

Chapters VI to XIII, inclusive, deal with the large phases of method which their titles suggest—The Biographical Approach to History, The Study of Social Groups, Making the Past Real, The Use of Models and Pictures, The Use of Maps, The Use of Text-books, with a preceding chapter on Text-books in History, and The Selection and Management of Collateral Reading. These chapters are replete with concrete suggestions, full of promise of serviceableness.

Training in historical method is both possible and necessary in elementary and secondary school, he asserts, and

Chapter XIV is devoted to an exposition of clearly practical ways of giving this. Chapter XV deals with correlation of history with other subjects, and the concluding chapter treats of the history examination. In the methods commonly used for testing proficiency in this subject he finds much to criticize, though he presents the pleas of defenders of them. Contending that these examinations should include in much larger degree than they generally do tests of processes of study, he offers a sample examination, and declares: "It is, indeed, doubtful if more than a fourth, or perhaps a third, of the examination should be devoted to tests of ability to *remember*. The remainder of the paper could then be devoted to tests of ability to *do*; to interpret a map or picture; to analyze a paragraph or page of history; to find materials on a given topic; to solve by use of given materials a simple problem in criticism; to recognize in given facts differing degrees of probability; to judge from a given description some historical character; to discover in given conditions, past and present, resemblances, differences, relations, tendencies; to organize a given collection of facts; to select from the work of a term or a year, facts of special importance and to explain why they are important." This relatively low estimate on the power to remember history as a product of teaching history seems to the reviewer mistaken. At any rate, it is more than likely that for very many teacher readers of this book this emphasis on the value of the processes will obscure for them the essential truth that for their pupils to attempt to work in and with the materials of history without a secure mastery of the facts of history within their grasp is to try to make bricks without straw. The output of such effort is sure to be more of that deprecated product of our history class-room—vagueness and confusion. We would rather his readers would take thoroughly to heart his dictum on page 406: "The duty of those who profess to teach history is to teach history," which in light of his declaration of aim would mean the securing by the pupil of an understanding and firm possession of the facts of history. Is not the chief glory of history as a school study the supreme worth of its facts, possessing, as they do, unique power to liberate and extend the understanding of boys and girls? And does not our best hope of relief from injustice in the history examinations lie in the endeavor of the national committees to both reach an agreement as to what the facts are that are essential, and reduce their number to such an extent that secure mastery of them by our pupils is realizable?

A more than usually full table of contents introduces the book, and five appendixes with index close it. The first three of these are valuable bibliographies, of history teaching, of guides to historical literature, and of illustrative material. Appendix IV presents selected references grouped for use in connection with the chapters of this book, and Appendix V is a group of sets of questions arranged in the order of the chapters to which they apply.

Professor Johnson's earlier work, "The Problem of Adapting History to Children in the Elementary School," now out of print, prepared his public to expect a definite contribution to the literature of the teaching of history when his volume in the Teachers' Professional Library should appear, and this expectation has now been fully realized. More than any other American writer he has acquainted himself with the long history of the teaching

of history, and his breadth of learning in this field gives unique value to his book. Moreover, he knows thoroughly present-day conditions in many school rooms—the teacher with whom the assigning of the lesson is but a fiction, the pupils who have never been taught how to study history or who "have trained the teacher to do most of the reciting," and the many other forms in which the difficulties of the task of teaching history declare themselves. Yet he evinces abundant faith in the ability of boys and girls to cope with history, the lessons in which he declares should be taken as seriously and studied as intelligently before coming to class as lessons in Latin or in mathematics. Because of his broad scholarship, his professional insight and his clear and untechnical presentation of his material, his work will be of great value to all history teachers, from the elementary school through the university, and clearly takes front rank in this field of professional literature.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY, AND BREASTED, JAMES HENRY.
Outlines of European History, Part I. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1914. Pp. xii, 730. \$1.50.

The repute of these authors in the fields of authorship and scholarship is a guarantee of excellence in their product. Yet because this book and its companion, "Outlines of European History, Part II," which came first from the press, are the authors' answer to a question not yet otherwise authoritatively decided, they are deserving of especial scrutiny. This important question is, What shall be the content of a two years' high school course in European history? Involved in this are the problems of determining relative values of periods of history, as of recent history in comparison with ancient, and of distribution of emphasis and apportionment of space. These are questions so significant that the National Education Association has had them under consideration for several years, and the American Historical Association has arranged for a nation-wide committee to meet in the coming December to consider them. The author's answer is that special emphasis should be laid on "the past hundred and fifty or two hundred years which concern us most immediately," and to this section of history Part II is devoted; so Part I is made to extend from prehistoric times to 1715. Probably the consensus of opinion will be shown to be that for many schools a two years' course of European history must supplant the three years' course recommended by the Committee of Seven, and in such a plan, of course, omissions must be made of material heretofore judged to be important. Yet very many are not ready to agree to the superlative importance of the immediate past as interpretative of the present when that emphasis inevitably precludes acquaintance with other important bygone times. That the authors themselves are reluctant to part with much of this remoter past is shown both by the size of Part I, whose 730 pages are in addition to the numerous colored pictures and maps, and by the large number of topics included in it. Experience with first and second year high school classes in history compels the conclusion that here there is too much material to be covered in one year with elementary pupils. Moreover, though the preface asserts that the purpose of the authors is to de-

part from the practice of older books which "tended to give too much attention to the remote past," this aggregate of pages is thus made up: ancient history to 814 has 380 pages; 814 to 1500 has 181 pages; 1500 to 1715 has 134 pages; appendix, etc., have 34 pages. Furthermore, the space devoted to ancient history is thus apportioned: to the earliest periods running down to about 750 B.C. the pages given number 135; to Greek history from that time on 105 pages; to Roman history through the period of barbarian invasions 93 pages; thence to Charlemagne 47 pages. This giving of the greatest emphasis to the Oriental period has produced an exceedingly fresh and attractive presentation of the life of those times. Yet it may be seriously questioned whether this, too, has not "tended to give too much attention to the remote past," when one looks in vain in this book for the slightest account of Sparta's peculiar social institutions. In the section of the book devoted to medieval history very few topics heretofore considered important have been omitted, but the treatment of many of them has been reduced to a minimum. This is evidenced by the fact that though almost the same subjects have had mention in this book which receive treatment in the corresponding period in Robinson's "History of Western Europe," they receive here eighty pages less space than they had there.

Among the clearly excellent features of this volume are emphasis on conditions and institutions more than on events, the distribution of the material into sections that constitute "discussible topics rather than fragments of chronology," and the wealth of corroborating and vivifying illustrations with very illuminating interpretations attached.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

WALSH, CORREA MOYLAN. The Political Science of John Adams. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xxiv, 374. \$2.25.

The future biographer of the second President of the United States will find the most tedious part of his work well done in this volume. Perhaps Adams' ideas of government, apart from his political life, have not been sufficiently emphasized. While we naturally think the political ideas of Madison or Hamilton who figured more largely in the framing of the Constitution of more importance than those of Adams, still the latter was a refined theorizer, and his ideas are a fair illustration of the political science of that time.

There is given not only a complete resume of Adams' ideas, but there is reconstructed from his writings the system of government as he would have had it. The work is not narrow in scope, but shows a rather wide acquaintance on the part of the author with the political writers of that and of earlier times, and in many instances there is pointed out the possible sources of Adams' ideas. The views of Adams are often criticised, and later developments in the history of our government are cited to show fallacies and contradictions into which he occasionally fell.

The footnote citations are numerous and full in detail. A bibliographical summary of Adams' writings in chronological order and a list of other closely related works would have rendered the book more serviceable to students. Sometimes the criticism of some particular idea of Adams is unduly extended. But the style of the writer is simple, and the volume makes attractive reading. While this monograph may not be extensively read by students of history, it will be found serviceable as a reference work in political science.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

M. Nélidow's "Memories Before and After the War of 1877-8" is the leading article in the "Revue des Deux Mondes" for July.

In the last number of the "Maryland Historical Magazine" appears an interesting collection of the early letters of Charles Carroll, of Carrollton. Although they are mostly family letters, they give interesting sidelights on the character of this Revolutionary statesman.

"The Catholic World" for September, 1915, contains an article by Charles Baussan, in which, under the title of "Catholic Renaissance in France," he discusses the probability of a coming unity of Church and State—the result of the spiritual awakening which is coming because of the great war.

The sixth of Mr. Bradford's "Union Portraits—William H. Seward"—appears in the September "Atlantic," and affords an interesting contrast to his fifth portrait—"Stanton." Seward, says Mr. Bradford, was a politician by nature and by instinct, with an extraordinary faculty for developing and directing political movements, and was, on the whole, a "many-sided, many-colored, many-featured and most fascinating spirit."

"The New England Historical and Genealogical Register" for July, 1915, contains a letter written by John Hart, dated October 4, 1780, which gives an account of the death of André. Hart was an army surgeon during the Revolution, and was one of the medical inspectors appointed to supervise the execution of André.

The "Civilita Cattolica" for August, 1915, contains the stirring prayer of Pope Benedict XV, addressed to the warring nations.

In "The Popular Science Monthly" for September is a most fascinating and suggestive article by Prof. Lynn Thorndyke, of Western Reserve, on "Natural Science in the Middle Ages," in which he argues that there was more natural science in that period than its historians have recognized.

"The Earliest Bouweries in Brooklyn and Their Owners" is the subject of a bit of interesting research by Joel N. Eno, which is published in the "New York Genealogical and Biographical Record," to which is appended a sketch of the city of Brooklyn.

In the "Revista d'Italia" for July appears a most interesting article by Fortunato Rizzi on the intellect and morals of the fifteenth century, in which he attributes the corruption of that century, as well as its brilliancy, to Platonism.

In the current number of "World's Work," James R. Merriam discusses "How Foreign Nations Finance the War" in a peculiarly interesting and exhaustive article under this title.

The Neutral Ground was a strip of land about forty by two hundred miles in extent, located in the Iowa territory, and planned by the Government to be a prevention against inter-tribal wars. Its origin in 1830, occupation by the Winnebagoes two years later, its development and decay, are ably discussed by Jacob van der Zee in the "Iowa Journal of History and Politics" for July, 1915.

In the last number of the "Deutsche Rundschau" to be received in America—that for May, 1915—Karl Nötzel dis-

cusses social conditions in Russia to-day, especially of the peasant class, under the title of "The Russia of To-day." He argues that Russia is the dominant danger to western Europe to-day, because of its unrelenting despotism in governmental affairs.

"The Sewanee Review" for July, 1915, presents an interesting study of Sir William Monson by Prof. W. C. Abbot, of Yale—a seaman, courtier and author of the sixteenth century. Though not well known, he was an interesting figure, and "in his temptations and achievements, a true child of his age . . . a strange compound of greatness and littleness, brave, crafty, voluble, worldly-wise and simply ambitious, greedy of wealth and power, proud, loyal, prejudiced, stubborn, subservient, a true Elizabethan Englishman."

The Abbe Alphonse Lugan's article on "Austria, the Victim of German Militarism," is the leading article in the "Nuestro Tiempo" for July, 1915. According to him, Germany betrayed Austria and thus forced her into the war in opposition to the naturally peaceful population.

In "The Canadian Magazine" for September, Frank Yeigh gives an interesting account of the trial of Anderson, the fugitive slave who was arrested in Canada on a charge of having murdered a planter called Digges in Missouri some years before, while attempting to escape. The trial created international interest. The United States watched the development with closest interest, and the Imperial Government was brought into the strife.

"The Contemporary Review" for August, 1915, contains the lecture of the Princess Bariatnisky, the head of the Polish relief work, on "Poland's Ordeal and Poland's Hope." This lecture was delivered by the Princess in London when she was touring the British Isles to secure financial aid for the fund for the relief of her suffering people. In it she expresses the firm belief that Poland will be free when the war is over, and urges England to assist her in this. Not only Poland, but enlightened Russia, desires this, and the latter government is earnestly striving to secure the freedom of Poland. Germany is denounced as being the most implacable foe of Poland, and the greatest obstacle in the way of Poland's ever securing a separate government, while the victory of Russia would mean the crushing of German militarism in Poland, the co-operation of Russia in a democratic Polish policy for all Poland, and the elimination of German colonists from Russian Poland.

In "The North American Review" for September, Editor Harvey in "The Tragedy of Mexico," denounces the present administration's responsibility for the situation there. Like many men who have not received formal college training, Mr. Harvey is disposed to question the value of President Wilson's academic training. "The crux of his blundering is in the misconception of his own functions. Impressed by his unprecedently quick elevation from college professor to the most exalted political position on earth, convinced of the popularity of the hazy theories whose fascinating articles charmed the people, flushed by success in subordinating a co-ordinate branch of the government to his will, he unconsciously but inevitably assumed the attitude of one divinely appointed to conserve humanity in new and striking ways, and forgot for the moment that he was quite a fallible and far from omnipotent being who in reality had only been elected President of the United States charged with the performance of certain official tasks specially defined by fundamental law."

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